







# NEWFOUNDLAND

IN 1842:

A SEQUEL TO "THE CANADAS IN 1841."

BY

STUART TRENKLE BONNYCASTLE, KNT.

OF THE ROYAL ENGINEERS.



DESIGNED BY THE REV. J. H. STUART.

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## CHAPTER IX.

## RICULTURAL RESOURCES.

THE British reader who has only heard of the fishery of Newfoundland, will be surprised to learn that a country of fog, of ice, of storm, and snow, can possess agricultural resources much beyond those of the regions to the extreme northward, where the Esquimaux luxuriates upon lichens and blubber. Whitbourne was ridiculed when he talked of the productiveness of Newfoundland, and Lord Baltimore was almost ruined by choosing to build his castle on a bleak and desolate part of the coast, <sup>ALLS of I</sup> of upon the western shores, or in the <sup>country of</sup> of the fruitful valleys of the interior. Had he chosen the fine healthy climates of St. George's Bay, RAJAS<sup>T</sup> Bay of Islands, for the seat of the Cal-  
he ancient  
NEW JAV  
Newfoundland would now have possessed a capital, rivalling that he afterwards founded in the pestiferous swamps of Maryland, and which, by dint of perseverance and

labour, has since risen to rank as the fourth city of the Union, notwithstanding its ancient insalubrity.

Captain Hayes, second in command to Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who made a voyage of discovery to Newfoundland in the year 1583, writes thus, "A briefe relation of the New foundland and the commodities thereof:"—

"That which we doe call the Newfoundland, and the Frenchmen Bacalaos, is an island, or rather (after the opinion of some) a collection of sundry islands and broken lands, situate in the north regions of America, upon the gulf and entrance of the great riuer called St. Lawrence in Canada. Into the which, nauigation may be made both on the south and north side of this island. The land lyeth south and north, containing in length betweene three and 400 miles, accounting from Cape Race (which is in 46 degrees 25 minuts) vnto the Grand Baie in 52 degrees of septentrionall latitude. The island round about hath very many goodly bayes and harbors, safe roads for ships, the like not to be found in any part of the known world.

"The common opinion that is had of the temperature and extreme cold that should be in this countrey, as of some part it may be verified, namely the north, where I gra<sup>RICK</sup> is more colde then in countries of Europe, which are vnder the same eleuation: euen so it cannot stand with reason and nature of the

clime **E L D** Fe south parts should be so in-  
 temperate as the bruit hath gone. For as the  
 same doe lie under the climats of Briton,  
 Aniou, Poictou, in France, betweene 46 and  
 49 degrees, so can they not so much differ  
 in temperature of those countries: vnless  
 the out coasts lying open unto the ocean  
 be winds, it must in neede be sub-  
 stantially colde, then further within the  
 lande, where the mountaines are interposed,  
 as vnder bulwarkes, to defende and to  
 resist the asperitie and rigor of the sea and  
 weather. Some hold opinion, that the New-  
 foundland might be the more suiet to cold,  
 by how much it lyeth high and neere vnto the  
 middle region. I grant that not in New-  
 foundland alone, but in Germany, Italy, and  
 Afrike, euen vnder the Equinoctiall line, the  
 mountaines are extreme cold, and seeldome  
 uncoured of snow, in their culme and highest  
 tops, which commeth to passe by the same  
 reason that they are extended towards the  
 middle region: yet in the countries lying  
 beneath them, it is found quite contrary. Euen  
**R K S** hills hauing their discent, the valleis  
 and low grounds must be likewise hot or  
 temperate, as the clime doeth giue in New-  
 foundland: though I am of opinion that the  
 reflection is much cooled, and cannot  
 be so forcible in the Newfoundland nor gene-  
 rally throughout America, as in Europe or  
 Afrike: by how much the sunne in his diurnall

course from east to west, passeth <sup>over</sup> (for  
the most part) dry land and sandy countries,  
before he arriue<sup>t</sup>h at the West of Europe or  
Afrike, whereby his motion increaseth<sup>r</sup> heate,  
with little or no qualification by moyst vapours.  
Where, on the contrarie, he passeth from  
Europe and Afrike vnto America <sup>the highest</sup>  
ocean, from whence it draweth and carrieth<sup>the coldest</sup>  
with him abundance of moyst vapours, which<sup>are</sup>  
doe qualifie and infeeble greatly the sunne's  
reuerberation vpon this countrey chiefly of  
Newfoundland, being so much to the north-  
ward. Neuerthelesse (as I sayd before) the  
cold cannot be so intollerable vnder the lati-  
tude of 46. 47 and 48. especiall within land,  
that it should be uninhabitable, as some doe  
suppose, seeing also there are very many  
people more to the north by a great deale.  
And in these south partes there be certain  
beastes, ounces or leopards, and birdes in  
like manner which in the sommer we haue  
scene, not heard of in countries of extreme  
and vehement coldnesse. Besides as in the  
monethes of June, July, August, and Sep-  
tember, the heate is somewhat more <sup>resulting</sup>  
England at those seasons: so men remaini<sup>n</sup>g  
vpon the south parts neere vnto Cape Rece,  
vntil after Hollandtide, haue not found<sup>the</sup>  
cold so extreme, nor much differing from the  
temperature of England. Those which haue  
arriued there after Nouember and December  
haue found the snow exceeding deepe, whereat

no marvellous, considering the ground upon the coast, is <sup>beaten</sup> <sup>recovered</sup> <sup>th</sup> and vneuen, and the snow is driuen into the places most declyning, as the like is to be seene with vs. The like depth of snow happily shall not be found within land vpon the playner countries, which also are defended <sup>by the</sup> <sup>mountaines</sup>, breaking off the violence <sup>will steadily be</sup> <sup>inds</sup> and weather. But admitting <sup>et, however, the</sup> <sup>inary</sup> cold in those south parts, aboue <sup>and more</sup> <sup>Pa</sup> that with us here: it cannot be so great as that in Swedland, much less, in Muscouia or Russia; yet are the same countries very populous, and the rigor of cold is dispensed with by the commoditie of stones, warme clothing, meats and drinckes: all which neede not to be wanting in the Newfoundland, if we had intent there to inhabite.

“ In the south parts we found no inhabitants, which by all likelihood haue abandoned those coastes, the same being so much frequented by Christians: but in the north are sauages altogether harmlesse. Touching the commodities of this countrie, seruing either for sustentation of inhabitants, or for maintenance of traffique, there are and may be made diuers: so and it seemeth nature hath recompensed that only defect and incommoditie of some sharpe cold, by many benefits: viz. with incredible quantitie, and no less varietie of kindes of fish in the sea and fresh waters, as trouts, salmons, and other fish to us vnknown: also cod, which alone draweth many

nations thither, and is become the most famous fishing of the world. Abundance of whales, for which also is a very great trade in the bayes of Placentia, and the Grand Bay, where is made trane oiles of the whale. Herring, the largest that haue been heard of, and exceeding the alstrond herring of Norway: but hitherto was neuer benefit taken of the <sup>competition in</sup> fishing. There are sundry other fish <sup>may be its e</sup> very delicate, namely the bonito, lobsters, turbut, with others infinite not sought after: oysters hauing pearle but not orient in colour: I tooke it by reason they were not gathered in season.

“Concerning the inland commodities as wel to be drawn from this land, as from the exceeding large countries adioyning: there is nothing which our east and northerly countries of Europe doe yeelde, but the like also may be made in them as plentifully by time and industrie: namely, rosen, pitch, tarre, sope ashes, deel boord, mastes for ships, hides, furies, flaxe, hempe, corne, cables, cordage, linnen-cloth, mettals, and many more. All which the countries will aford, and the soyle is apt to yeelde.

“The trees for the most in those south parts, are firre trees, pine and cypresse, all yielding gumme and turpentine. Cherrie trees bearing fruit no bigger then a small pease. Also peare trees, but fruitlesse. Other trees of some sorts to us unknown.

“The soyle along the coast is not deepe of

earth, bringing foorth abundantly peason small, yet good feeding for cattel. Roses, passing sweet, like vnto our muske roses in forme, raspases, a berry which we call harts, good and holesome to eat. The grasse and herbe doth fat sheepe in very short space, <sup>reared</sup> by English marchants which haue <sup>and so</sup> <sup>the</sup> sheepe thither for fresh victuall, and <sup>as a rule</sup> <sup>in</sup> raised exceeding fat in lesse than three weekes. Peason which our countrey-men haue sown in the time of May, haue come vp faire, and bene gathered in the beginning of August, of which our generall had a present acceptable for the rarenesse, being the first fruits coming vp by art and industrie, in that desolate and dishabited land.

“ We could not obserue the hundredth part of creatures in those vnhabited lands: but these mentioned may induce vs to glorifie the magnificent God, who hath superabundantly replenished the earth with creatures seruing for the vse of man, though man hath not vsed the fift part of the same, which the more doth aggrauate the fault and foolish slouth in many of our nation, chusing rather to liue indirectly, and very miserably to liue and die within this realme pestered with inhabitants, then to aduenture as becommeth men, to obtaine an habitation in those remote lands, in which nature very prodigally doth minister vnto mens endeauours, and for art to worke vpon.”

Mr. Chief Justice Forbes, in a statement

addressed to the Colonial Department, under date of the 14th of August, 1822, writes:—

“As a general remedy, whatever tends to revive the fisheries must also have the effect of relieving the people. It were desirable that, with the view of opening some auxiliary employment to the inhabitants of Newfoundland, every restraint upon the cultivation of the soil should be removed, and every encouragement given to the breeding of sheep, cattle, and other live stock.

“The necessity of cultivating the soil, as an auxiliary to the fishery, is not disputed, nor is there any existing law which prohibits it; but there is none to encourage it; and there is still maintained in the island an ancient opinion, that it is against the policy of Government—as if that could be called policy, which, in a country overstocked with people, and distressed for food, would prohibit so plain a dictate of natural law, as that of raising subsistence from the earth.

“This cannot be, is not, the policy of the British Government; and nothing is wanting but a fair apprehension of the case to induce its enlightened rulers, not only to remove every shadow of obstruction from the cultivation of the soil, but to encourage and protect it by every means in their power. To preserve the transient fishery has been found impracticable; to attempt to revive it would be to shut our senses against the light of

reason and the lessons of experience. As a broad proposition, it may be maintained, that if the fishery were to be taken up as it is, *de facto*, and a system adapted to the present state of things openly avowed and directly pursued by the local authorities, Newfoundland would become, what it ought to be, a prosperous settlement, subsisting itself by internal resources, drawing its manufactured supplies from the mother country, and repaying her care by a valuable trade, and a numerous race of seamen, trained for her service, and ready to attend her first call in the defence of the empire."

Whitbourne, in his quaint preface or address "to his Majesty's good subjects," written in 1662, says, "The Iland of New-found-land is large, temperate, and fruitfull, the fruitfullness of it consisting not only in things of sustenance, for those that shall inhabit, but in many sorts of commodities likewise, of good vse and valew to be transported. The natives are ingenious, and apt by discreet and moderate governments to be brought to obedience."

Alas! its capabilities have never been truly appreciated; they interfered with the certain gains derivable from the Bank fishery; a false policy prevented the settlement of the fairest half of the island, superior to parts of the opposite continent; and this has continued until nearly the present moment, because Great Britain was unnecessarily generous to the con-

quered French, and because it was originally the open and undisguised policy of a few rich merchants, to keep the trade limited to the Bank fishery, thereby ensuring wealth to them at home, and to those they employed in the island as their chief factors.\*

Emigration to Newfoundland has, therefore, never taken place to any large amount, the people who do settle there being chiefly relatives of those formerly established, or casual labourers in the great work of the fishery. It will naturally be asked, What motive can there be for settling in a country as yet unexplored? I will answer in the quaint diction of the worthy Whitbourne:—

“Now if you would vnderstand what motives wee haue at home with vs to carry vs thither, doe but looke vpon the populousnesse of our countrey, to what a surfet of multitude it is subject; consider how charitable for those that goe, and how much ease it will be for those that stay, to put forth some of our numbers, to such an imployment of living. Compare the English nature with others, and finde

\* To assert that Newfoundland is incapable of supporting a population will, in this enlightened age, be no longer ventured upon. Read Franklin's Journeys to the Arctic Ocean, and it will be seen that wheat, barley, oats, and vegetables, were raised at the trading ports; cattle and horses thrive on the Saskatchewan, in 53° 56' 40", where the thermometer goes down so low that the mercury freezes in the bulb.

whether wee haue not as much courage as they, both to vndertake and maintaine; onely we lose it, in having less industry." "There is another motive. also, which amongst our ancestors was wont to finde good respect, namely, the honour of the action, by the enlarging of dominions."

He then enters into a description, founded, as he says, upon long and intimate acquaintance of the country, and observes, that "the soyle in the valleys and sides of the mountaines, is so fruitfull, as that in divers places, there the summer naturally produceth out of the fruitfull wombe of the earth, without the labour of man's hand, great plenty of green pease and fitches, faire, round, full, and wholesome as our fitches are in England, of which I have there fed on many times; the hawmes of them are good fodder for cattell and other beasts in the winter, with the helpe of hay, of which there may be made great store with little labour, in divers places of the countrey.

"Then have you there faire strawberries<sup>\*</sup> red and white, and as faire raspasseberries and gooseberries as there be in England,<sup>†</sup> as

\* Whether it is owing to the humidity of the climate or the nature of the soil, I know not, but I concur with Whitbourne. The garden peas and strawberries are the best I have seen; the former last in bloom and pod until late in the autumn; the latter, in size rival the largest hautboy.

† Perhaps there were then, but there are not now.

also multitudes of bilberries, which are called by some whortes, and many other delicate berries, (which I cannot name), in great abundance.

“ Here are also many other fruites, as small peares, cherries, filberds, etc. And of these berries and fruites, the store is there so great, that the mariners of my ship and barkes company, have often gathered at once more than halfe an hogshead would hold; of which divers eating their fill, I never heard of any man whose health was thereby any way impaired.

“ There are also herbes for sallets and broth; as parsley, alexander, sorrell, etc. And also flowers, as the red and white damaske rose, with other kinds, which are most beautifull and delightfull, both to the sight and smell.

“ And questionlesse, the countrey is stored with many physicall herbs and roots; albeit their vertues are not knowne, because not sought after, etc.

“ This being the naturall fruitfullnesse of the earth, producing such varieties of things, fit for food, without the labour of man; I might in reason hence inferre, that if some were manured, and husbanded in some places, as our grounds are, it would be apt to beare corne, and no lesse fertile than the English soyle.\*

\* It must be borne in mind that Whitbourne was a sailor, and not a farmer, and that Franklin, also a sailor, says that he saw horses at plough in 53° 56' 40"

“ But I need not confine myself to probabilities, seeing our men that have wintred there divers yeeres, did for a triall and experiment thereof, sowe some small quantitie of corne, which I sawe growing very faire; and they found the increase to bee great, and the graine very good; and it is well knowne to mee, and divers that trade there yeerely, how that cabbage, carrets, turneps, lettice, parsley, and such like, prove well there.”\*

And this is the book that has been cited as vying with Mandeville and Munchausen, in its author's account of Newfoundland; the critics forgetting that the hyperbolical statements are not contained in honest Jack's narrative, but in a supplementary part, written by “one Captain Wynne,” who governed Lord Baltimore's grant at its outset, and that Whit-

on the Saskatchewan, where mercury freezes in winter, and fields of wheat, barley, and Indian corn, were cultivated in a climate far inferior to that of Newfoundland;—Franklin will be believed, but Whitbourne was not.

\* Franklin, in his first journey to the Arctic Ocean, says, that at Carlton House, in 52° 50' N. L., where the thermometer often stands in winter 30° or 40° below zero, and the mercury freezes, “the land is fertile and produces, with little trouble, ample returns of wheat, barley, oats, and potatoes; the ground is prepared for the reception of these vegetables about the middle of April:” and yet the summer there is shorter than in Newfoundland, and equally variable.

bourne is fully sustained by a previous writer, Captain Hayes, whose account, very similar, may be read in Hackluyt, or in Chappell's Newfoundland, and which I have just before given.

With respect to agricultural pursuits, at present Newfoundland, as might be inferred, is very deficient. But few persons possessing any capital have hitherto settled there, and it is only very recently that those persons who have chosen to reside permanently, or who desire to improve their condition by the formation of country residences during their probationary stay, have turned their attention to it, the small farming fisherman having been the pioneer.

The portion of the colony cleared is that about the large towns and villages only, such as St. John's, Harbour Grace, Carbonier, Brigus, etc. Conception Bay, it is said, has the greatest quantity of cultivated soil, but the capital has just taken a very decisive start, by establishing an agricultural society. Placentia, Bonavista, Ferryland, Fortune Bay, Trinity, Bay of Bulls, Fogo and Twillingate, Trepassey, and St. Mary's, Burn, and Mortier, follow, as the chief places where food, either for man, or for horses and stock, is raised from the earth.

Perhaps altogether the cultivated land, near the southern and eastern shores, which are the worst portions of the island, exceeds a hundred

thousand acres, and as much more is occupied, from which a few potatoes, hides, calfskins, and some tallow, have been exported; the hides alone, in some years, amounting to 2500, and the calfskins to nearly 700.

The potatoes are sent on speculation to the West Indies,\* but this is a rare occurrence; and the value of all these exports, produced from the land, has been so very variously stated that I shall not attempt to give it, being too trifling at present to engage more attention than to prove the capabilities of the soil in the very worst districts of Newfoundland, notwithstanding the unfounded assertion of political economists at home, and of interested persons here, that it was wholly incapable of supporting a population.

So far, indeed, has this assertion been carried, that the reason for not completing the few roads from the capital to the out-harbours has been said to be, because they are useless, or worse than useless, affording, as they would, facilities to the poor fisherman in laying in his winter supplies at St. John's, by bringing his fish to market readily; two things which, without roads, he must perform in boats, at great personal toil, exposure, and risk; thus obliging him to lead an eternal sea-faring life,

\* Potatoes are cultivated as high as 62°, at Fort Simpson, near M'Kenzie's River, or very near the Arctic Circle.

and to hazard it at all seasons of the year, and depriving the town of an ample supply of hay, oats, and culinary vegetables.

Another reason has been given, more fallacious still;—that by opening roads, the access to the capital would be so easy, that the poor fisherman would almost abandon the shore fishery, and betake himself to cultivation; resorting only to the sea for his own supply of fish, and depriving the merchant of his assistance; whilst the easy terms upon which firewood could then be had, would deprive the fishing stages of the usual supply of the poles requisite for their construction.

But a better spirit is beginning to prevail. The mode in which the home government has acted, with respect to all the adjacent continental colonies, has proved that Newfoundland will be governed upon like principles, and it being now impossible to monopolize the Atlantic fisheries, the banks are no longer the great nursery on which British seamen are to be cradled.

We shall see presently the importance, in a political point of view, of this island, and thus judge of the propriety of confining the spread of a hardy race to a mile or two round a fishing harbour.

Newfoundland has been divided somewhat hastily into two portions, by a line drawn from Cape Ray to the Bay of Exploits; and without any knowledge of the interior, it is said to be

barren, hopelessly barren, on the Atlantic half, whilst the French possess the shores of the more fertile western division.\*

Now it is proved that on this barren and sterile coast, which is alone inhabited by the British race, potatoes, oats, turnips, and all the necessary vegetables, can readily be reared, even on the very worst portion of such a wilderness as that of the littoral.

Here one hundred thousand acres are stated to be under cultivation, and to support one thousand horses, ten thousand cattle, ten thousand sheep, and twenty thousand swine; which is much below the real quantities, and may now, in 1842, be almost doubled in every instance. It is, however, impossible to get at a real statement, property of this description being untaxed, and seven years having elapsed since the first correct or nearly correct census was obtained.

The very worst, and most forbidding portion

\* The geologist who made this somewhat hasty division could surely not have reflected that the interior had never been seen by any person capable of judging. He, perhaps, suffered his judgment to be unconsciously biassed by the prevailing mode of thinking respecting Newfoundland. If not looked well into, a traveller accustomed to less stormy regions would be very apt to do as the celebrated tourist did about Alsace; he passed through it, saw a red-haired woman and a drunken man, and accordingly made a note for his book; all the women in Alsace red haired—all the men drunkards.

of the soil, is that in the neighbourhood of St. John's; and yet here, in all directions, the plough speeds, the ancient forest has vanished, and a distance of from seven to nine miles must be traversed, before even inferior firewood can be got at, whilst larger timber is at least twelve miles distant.

The principal objects of agricultural industry are potatoes, oats, barley, hay, straw, turnips, and cabbages, with the common garden esculent vegetables, which all thrive well, excepting onions, and they are imported cheaper than they could be reared at present, for want of proper manure.

I have seen samples of oats from Conception Bay, raised from English seed imported by Sir Thomas Cochrane, which fully equalled the parent growth; and other samples, produced at the first meeting of the Agricultural Society, grown near St. John's, were as full and as heavy as any reared in Scotland. A Scotch farmer assured me that on his land, about four miles westward of the city, belonging, I believe, to Captain Prescott, he raised oats of the best quality, and that the soil generally was well adapted to that grain.

Wheat is growing now within a mile of the house I am writing in; it was sown in the fall of the year, and in this month, April, has survived all the severe alternations of the winter. Winter wheat, in fact, is better adapted to the climate than any other; as this

grain, if sown in the spring, is apt to rot before it shoots, and the short summer will not allow of a sufficient time for its growth.

An intelligent merchant, who has retired from business and settled here with his family, has raised sufficient wheat, and ground it into flour, at his own mill, to supply his winter consumption. This gentleman erected a fine water-mill, at great expense, in order to convert foreign wheat; but the prices, since the war, at which Canada and the United States can export flour, render a flour-mill here useless, until oats and barley, both of which grow freely, shall be cultivated in sufficient quantities to render their meal available.

I do not believe that the sea-coast, covered as it is occasionally with saline vapours, will ever permit the vicinity of St. John's, or of any of the harbours on the eastern or southern coasts, to become a wheat-growing region,—exposed as it is, moreover, to such incessant vicissitudes of climate, from local causes, such as the vast bodies of chilling polar and gulf ice, which refrigerate the air in the spring. But there are situations, in the interior, and on the west coast, fully as capable of growing the less hardy cereal gramina as the adjacent continent; and no doubt, also, as the forest disappears, as roads are opened, and manure is obtained suitable to the inert soil near St. John's, that much will be achieved now thought hopeless.

The amiable White, that true philosopher, in the "Natural History" of his village, says, that "vegetation is highly worthy of our attention, if it is only from its usefulness to us. To plants we owe timber, bread, beer, honey, wine, oil, linen, cotton, the garments which clothe us, and the most nutritive of the various aliments which support us in existence. Man," he further observes, "in his true state of nature, seems to be subsisted by spontaneous vegetation in middle climes; where grasses prevail, he mixes some animal food with the produce of the field and the garden; and it is towards the polar extremes only, that, like his kindred bears and wolves, he gorges himself with flesh alone."

He then dilates happily upon the productions of the earth, its varied climates, and the vast influence thereby obtained upon the well-being of nations, shewing afar off and reverently, the wonderful interposition of Providence for our welfare.

But without the knowledge of plants and their culture, we must in northern regions "have been content with our hips and haws, without enjoying the salutiferous fruits" of warmer climates.

And he closes the beautiful peroration by shewing, that to study nature in her vegetable kingdom with success, the botanist should not content himself with seeking out obscure and rare genera or species, but make himself tho-

roughly acquainted with those that are really useful. "You shall see," says the natural historian of Selborne, "a man readily ascertain every herb of the field, yet hardly know wheat from barley, or at least one sort of wheat or barley from another.

"But of all sorts of vegetation, the grasses seem to be the most neglected; neither the farmer nor the grazier seems to distinguish the annual from the perennial, the hardy from the tender, nor the succulent and nutritive from the dry and juiceless.

"The study of grasses would be of great consequence to a northerly and grazing kingdom; the botanist that could improve the sward of the district where he lived, would be a useful member of society; to raise a thick turf on a naked soil, would be worth volumes of systematic knowledge, and he would be the best commonwealth's man that could occasion the growth of *two blades of grass where one alone was seen before.*"

Now, in Newfoundland, the natural grasses are luxuriant, and such of the foreign as have been tried, answer very well; the clovers also succeed, both naturally and by cultivation—the American Timothy meadow-grass, perhaps, the best. The attempts with fiorin have been too few to judge of the result; but it appears that any of the grasses which will grow in Canada will flourish here, and that

natural meadows or prairies are of vast extent in the interior.

Hay at present varies in price according to the supply from Prince Edward's Island, Boston, or other ports to the westward, and also to the drought or wetness of the summer. The quantity raised last year, 1841, has been sufficient for the consumption, and yielded about 5*l.* currency a ton, on an average.

The hay of the uplands about St. John's is far preferable as horse-food to that imported, being fresher, and not subjected to the process of screwing, in order to decrease the stowage, which frequently gives a musty odour. I have never purchased the foreign hay for this reason, although it may have been cheaper than that grown in the country. Good Timothy, mixed with red clover seed, is perhaps as well adapted to the hay-fields round St. John's as any other; but it should be one of the first inducements of the Agricultural Society to cause the farmer to try various European and American grasses, by awarding premiums, and by encouraging a taste amongst the more wealthy cultivators for that portion of botany relating to the plants of this class.

The great drawback to agricultural pursuits is, however, the want of adequate manure and of roads. If there were roads, of course the miserable, half-starved dogs which now draw the small farmer's supplies of wood would

give way to horses, and horse-manure would be attainable.

As soon as Sir Thomas Cochrane had opened communications by land with Conception Bay, by Portugal Cove and Topsail, before which time a horse had been an object of great novelty, even at the capital, and could only be supported at great expense by the imported hay and oats, fields soon were cleared and sown, and every merchant, and many of the fishermen, supplied themselves with horses for pleasure, for their agricultural pursuits, or for more easy communication with the capital of the colony.

It is no uncommon thing now to see the gradual advance in comfort which these few roads have produced. One can ride or drive nine or ten miles in a carriage, in summer, in two directions; the pack-horse, that old-fashioned English traveller, is seen trudging to St. John's from Torbay or Petty Harbour; the fisherman and his wife are observed seated on a pad; and the dog becomes every year of less use and less value as a beast of draught.

It is well for the poor, spurious descendant of the famed Newfoundland dog that he is so rapidly yielding in utility; for of all the ill-used animals in creation, none are worse treated by capricious man than these patient and forbearing creatures, which, in winter, may be seen toiling harnessed in pairs, or with two and a leader, to low sledges called catamarans, from before day-break until the even-

ing sets in, hauling fire-wood and fence-pickets, at the mercy of boys, and the very lowest class of the population, beaten, jaded, ill-fed, and occasionally wounded and killed when their over-exerted strength forbids their further progress. In summer, they swarm at every poor man's door, lying idle, listless, and basking in the sun, feeding on the offal of the fishery, hunting manure heaps for the garbage of the seal, and becoming perfect adepts in the art of breaking fences to get access at night to the yards of houses, in order to carry off bones.

These dogs have also another propensity, common to the whole race of Newfoundland dogs—that of worrying cattle and sheep; and have been known to make an entrance under an outhouse where sheep have been stalled, and to commit serious devastation. In short, half the mischief said to be performed by wolves, which are very rare near St. John's, is done by their starved congeners.

I have said nothing of the Newfoundland dog in the natural history section of this work, because a finer specimen of the breed is now to be had in England and in Canada—the dog here being of lower height, and less beautiful. There are, however, still some splendid water-dogs to be found, chiefly, as I hear, at the Twillingate Isles on the northern coast, and their habits adapt them as much to the water as to the land. They are of two kinds; the short, wiry-haired Labrador dog, and the

long, curly-haired Newfoundland species, generally black, with a white cross upon the breast.

The common dogs used in the catamarans are of every possible cross with these, and are of every variety of colour and fur. The whole live upon and prefer fish, and seem careless as to whether it is fresh, salted, or putrid. I think, from having kept both kinds, and also the spotted, mahogany-coloured, and short-haired Labrador dog, that the short-haired kind are the most faithful friends of man, and the best guardians of a house, and that the other variety, with his bushy and curling tail, is the best water-dog, although both are able to endure the most severe cold in that element, and would, if left alone, sleep in the snow, in preference to having a more sheltered bed.\*

I have known the mahogany-coloured Labrador dog, an animal of immense size and power, to follow my sleigh during a long journey upon the crust of the snow, until his feet became so chafed and sore that he was unable to proceed. His affection was unbounded, and the whole race appear to be particularly fond of children; but perhaps, from their originals having been of the wolfish nature, which manifests itself in those of the colder regions of Labrador and the Esquimaux country, they are

\* Franklin states that even in the most severe weather, with the mercury freezing, it was found difficult to induce the North American dog to come under shelter; he preferred the bed of snow.

all sheep-biters, and, if not very well fed, most dexterous thieves.

These dogs are all subject, when removed to a warmer climate, to a glandular swelling in the ear, which becomes very large and painful, and it should always be watched and lanced, or treated with care, although this class of dogs are very seldom visited with hydrophobia, and generally, when past cure, will, if allowed, retire to a woody or secret covert to die. If they were much subject to that malady, St. John's and the other towns in Newfoundland would be uninhabitable in the heats of summer, until they were extirpated; and what with bad treatment, want of regular diet, and filth, these poor creatures, it may be supposed, would be, of all their tribe, the best entitled to become mad and turn upon their tormentors.

But nature has otherwise ordained matters in Newfoundland. The boisterous winds drive infection from the most overcrowded hovels that any city of its size can produce. At St. John's, the noxious and offensive reptiles have never existed; the ill-treated slave-like dog is exempted from the most awful of all the diseases, which in its consequences terrifies the human race; and, notwithstanding that almost all the animals in the island, from the cow down to the domestic poultry, eat fish, and that man almost lives upon it in its salted state, disorders in both are very rare. The animal probably becomes accustomed to the food most

easily obtained, and man mixes it with biscuit and potatoes, and in the spring with the herbs so plentifully scattered in the wild woods and barrens, or with the berries which cover the earth, as it were, in their season, and which can be kept fresh all winter by simple immersion in water.\*

Every climate, as the sage of Selborne so truly observes, is thus specially provided with good, and the more we visit distinct regions, the more we have cause to admire and to adore.

But to resume the thread of the matter essentially before us.

Whenever the leading roads shall be completed round St. John's, the dog and the pack-horse, and pillowed pad, will disappear; and, indeed, the farmer's cart and horse are every year becoming less rare. The material for road-making is abundantly scattered, and the time, in fact, is rapidly approaching when this capital, and the chief fishing towns, will no

\* The blubber-eating Esquimaux on the Arctic Ocean finds sorrel, berries, and various cresses, to correct his oily food, and devours them eagerly, and such is the desire of man, in all states, for vegetable food, that Franklin, on his last voyage, found that the Indians were beginning to admit the necessity of cultivation and better dwellings, whilst at Fort Chepewyan, and even beyond it, potatoes and barley had supplied the tables of the traders, having been reared successfully since the previous expeditions in 1821: five or six years' advance in comfort and civilization.

longer depend upon the neighbouring colonies, upon the United States of America, and upon Europe, for meat, cheese, and butter; for the district of St. John's especially is well adapted as a grazing country; and the imported and home-raised cattle look as plump and as sleek as those of any other part of the world where they are carefully attended to, and I have seen cows at some of the farms which would not discredit the dairies of Devon.

In my country walks I have also met, more than once, a hundred head of stout beeves going a-field; and looking, from the eminences surrounding the city, over a country which lies spread out below you like a map, the numerous fields appear dotted with oxen and cows, as well as sheep; and, as before observed, it now only requires roads, to open more grass ground, and to supply sufficient fodder for the long and severe winter, to raise a stock adequate to the increasing demand, particularly as turnips, beets, and oats may be obtained in any quantity; and it is well known that on the south shore, numerous herds of cattle are reared, for even in the dreadful Bay of St. Shott's, the grave of the mariner, a solitary settler there has sixty head of neat cattle, for which, through want of roads, he has no market.

The manure used in this country is the refuse of the seal and cod fishery, the garbage of the seal, and the heads of the cod, mixed with the absorbent, black, decomposing, exposed

particles of the innumerable shallow peat-bogs of the island, and with a reddish loam-looking earth, in which there is not a particle of lime, but much iron.

The soil about St. John's and the towns in Conception Bay is, where the peat bogs do not prevail, formed of the decomposed portions of the greywackes, or, in plainer terms, of the weathering for ages of the sandstone and slate rocks, of which the country is made up. These mineral masses, compounded of the siliceous substance quartz, of minute grains of argillite or aluminous earth; feldspar, in the composition of which an alkali is supposed to enter, but which really contains both silex and alumina; and, coloured as they all are by iron, and occasionally intermixed with rough, gritty clays, in which iron largely enters as a colouring matter, they have the hue and appearance of the English loam without its admirable qualities. Mica also is found in the slates, but not largely.

Thus it will be observed that the soil, generally very shallow, lying over the undecomposed hard rock, yields little of itself to assist the production of wheat, or the more delicate grains and vegetables, and hence the reason why even the forest trees\* on the bleak east coast are stunted.

\* But there is no reason to despair. Read Franklin's second journey, and if the expeditions did no other good, they induced the trader on the M'Kenzie, as

Then, again, this soil, which is not a stiff or adherent clay, but a loose and friable mixture of the siliceous and aluminous matters, imbibes water too freely, and admits therefore of too great evaporation, rendering it readily wet and as readily dry,—which in the hot and sometimes rainless summers of this coast, where all the moisture is carried to sea in fog clouds, produces often the effect of destroying the crops.

It has been proved beyond contradiction, that without much consideration of the actual component parts of soils, those are invariably the best for the general purposes of the agriculturist, which are “so compounded as to admit of the greatest, most minute, and most immediate distribution, diffusion and circulation of water, or rather moisture, for when water is found in such portions as to be distinguished from the soil which it moistens, this will form, in most points of view, a watery or bad soil.”

Thus the lightest or the heaviest rain here, sinks immediately to the hard surface of the rock below, settles there, or finds its way through its numerous fissures, and whatever

high as Fort Norman, or within a few degrees of the Arctic Circle, to cultivate potatoes, barley, and vegetables. Potatoes were planted at Fort Chepewyan on the 21st May, barley on the 15th, and the garden sown on the 22nd; and the whole would be available by September.

small portion remains in the soil, as soon as the shower is over in summer, flies by evaporation into the atmosphere. The smoking of the ground, as it is called here, is one of the worst of signs for the gardener or farmer. In short, the soil, unless on sloping banks, or near rivers, admits of no genial circulation of moisture for the growth of the plants.

Too much aluminous matter or clay, and too much siliceous matter or sand, are equally unproductive: one retains the water till it rots the roots, and the other allows no moisture to feed them. The due mixture for a fertile garden or field, appears, by Gioberts' analysis, to contain in one pound by weight—sand, 3000 grains, 600 grains of clay, and about 100 grains of lime; and Muschenbroek discovered that the specific gravity of rich mould was to water as 1630.1000.

There is, in the neighbourhood of the settled parts of the east coast, none of that rich, natural, black land, caused by vegetable decomposition from successive decay of ages of forest; and the peat bogs are even different from those of Ireland, the country having such an universal system of natural drainage that these bogs are neither deep nor rich by long saturation of the sphagnous plants which support them.

They are, however, the present sources of manure, together with cods' heads, sea-blubber, and offal; the gases generated during the

process of putrefaction, in the latter, developing the latent properties of the former, by setting free the humic acid, which would be as readily but not so cheaply done with lime, or with the soda from the burnt sea-weed, or with the potass from the ashes of the wood fires, which all the farmers and most of the poorer class burn instead of the imported and expensive Sydney or English coal.

The principal food of all plants, the above matter and carbonic acid gas, are yielded in abundance by the compost of the Newfoundland farmer, which is formed for some time before it is used; but from want of experience, the manure has some substance in it which exhausts the land too fast, and is fit only for one crop. Probably this excess is in the undissolved animal matter, which might be reduced by a very small quantity of fresh lime.

Too much quicklime, however, in a compost heap, made chiefly of animal matter and inert vegetable substance, would take up too great a proportion of the carbonic gases; and thus it would be better, instead of endeavouring to reduce the refractory peat-earth with such a stimulant, rather to add fresh weeds, young branches of the dog-wood, and other plentiful shrubs, fresh turf, and wood-ashes or sea-weed, so as to neutralize the excess of acid which must remain in a putrescent heap of such animal matter, frozen during a long winter, and from which, after it is spread over the

fields, you see the starved dogs of the country picking out food.

Stable manure can only be used in gardens at present, as the roads, and consequently the horses, are equally scarce. The great drawback to the animal manure, is its exceedingly powerful stench, in autumn, when it is heaped to promote chemical action, and in spring, when it is spread over the ground. Its intensity overpowers those unaccustomed to it; and yet, as already mentioned, with other animal decomposition going on in the open air, it does not appear to affect the people's health; probably, however, the very high winds, and the constant breeze of this climate attenuate it, and carry it off quickly before it becomes too much mixed with the air.\*

\* It is now well ascertained that plants chiefly derive their germinating powers from the oxygen of the atmosphere, and the use of dung is thus obvious, consisting as it does greatly of muriatic acid and ammonia; this blubber, fat, and fish oil refuse, and must be injurious to a soil, as fatty substances consist almost wholly of hydrogen and carbon only; the latter useful, the former destructive, except to water-plants. Nature has departed from her usual laws with respect to aquatic or marsh plants, which part with oxygen freely and absorb hydrogen greedily, and thus counteract the effects of vegetable decomposition, always occurring in such localities, and rendering them less influenced by malaria. Great part of Newfoundland is covered by peat marsh, over which a perfect carpet of aquatic plants is spread, and these convert the

The effect of this manure upon new land is at first very powerful, but soon ceases; and as the soil is so siliceous here, with a strong mixture of aluminous particles, its effects do not last more than one season, the most enduring part of it being the peat, or vegetable portion.

If limestone could be obtained at hand—and it is to be had in Conception Bay—if gypsum should be hereafter brought from the coast, near the Bay of Bulls, or Cape Broyle, where it is said to exist in great quantity—even supposing the former to be unfit for making good building lime, and the latter to be chiefly useful on grass lands, an admixture of either with the poor soil will facilitate the operation of the fresh manure, especially if the lime be lightly ploughed in, and thus incorporated, by slaking, with the soil itself, before the fish manure is used: nothing, however, in agricultural operations, and particularly in gardening, requires more nicety and attention than the free use of lime to a soil, so as to avoid its caustic quality, and to add its virtues gradually, where nature has denied them.

Some of the richer class here are using lime, both in their compost heaps, and on their fields; but as it is all imported, either from

standing pools into healthy places, for one seldom sees green stagnant water on them; it is black and discoloured, but not unhealthy to live close to; perhaps the quality of the peat also assists.

Spain or Great Britain, it is too serious an article of expenditure at present to do more than to enable them to test its value.

Kelp is also used, and the sea-mud; but neither is in sufficient quantity near the capital, as the shores are high, bold and rocky, and afford no beaches of deposit. I saw a very intelligent small farmer, about two miles from River Head, using the silt left at the confluence of a small river in the harbour by the tide, and he assured me it was better than any other manure for potatoes, as he had succeeded in raising large crops from it. There is more alumina, and less silex in this mud, than in the soil; and it is not impossible, from the immense quantity of fish-bone thrown into the harbour, that it contains lime, also.

There is much whitish grey clay about St. John's, passing through the usual gradations to pipe-clay; but it is of too purely an aluminous character to be serviceable, unless largely used with lime.

It has been suggested, that by a prudent use of fish-bones, much manure of a very valuable nature might also be gathered; but the fisherman's attention is now so much absorbed in preparing the fish for the market, that he thinks but little of, and cares less for what he is only anxious to get rid of, by rendering it again to that ocean from which he drew it.

There are appearances of large patches of

loam in the rocks and alluvial *débris* all round St. John's, covering hollows, and in some instances it has been largely used; but it is merely the disintegrated sandstone already mentioned, coloured by iron, and answers no useful purpose, excepting that of facilitating the chemical action in the fish-heaps.

The soil around the capital is, in short, poor and hungry, requiring the yearly expense and labour of manuring, and more frequent summer rain than it is generally visited with, and therefore, in dry seasons, it is easily exhausted of the little nutriment for the crops it contains; and yet with all these drawbacks, it is good grass land, grows oats and barley well, produces potatoes of the best kinds in abundance, yields turnips equal to any other soil, and furnishes the table with all the British esculent vegetables: rhubarb flourishes almost as well as in Upper Canada, and stands the winter without covering.

The interior is better, and wherever the variegated slate or the igneous rocks prevail, there the forest trees are finer, and the land and grasses better and more luxuriant; as in the former, the aluminous particles are more abundant, and the latter in their varieties mix with all the rocks, and their disintegration produces rich earths. The potato crops in those regions are more certain, and the artificial grasses flourish better. A belt of a few miles round the coast, exposed to the stormy

ocean and its saline atmosphere, is the worst portion of the eastern division of Newfoundland. The western side about St. George's Bay, and as far as to Ingornachois is proverbially fertile, but sealed at present to British enterprise.

The season for working on the east and south shore commences in May, and the farmer's house their last harvest late in October, or early in November; for after the first week in the latter month strong frosts occasionally occur, and if the potato crop is neglected, it is subject to be nipped in the ground, which renders the root bitter when placed in a warm cellar.

They usually dig the potatoes all at once, as fast as possible, and make long narrow and shallow holes in the ground, upon which they heap the roots to a height of two or three feet above the level of the natural soil, forming them like a long pile of shot, with a ridge; which is then covered with the haulm or stalk of the plant, and that again with earth to some height. This is done to cause the potato to sweat, or dry, before it is again removed into the warm cellar or root-house. Sometimes these heaps, a little more covered and more carefully secured, are left all winter abroad, to be used as seed or food in the spring; for the frost does not enter the ground deeply in this country, and the severe winters are very rare. A few days from the time in

which I am writing, February 15th, the harbour was frozen slightly over at night, the thermometer being down to below zero; it broke up again the next day, and was again frozen for several days. The middle of February appears usually to be the season of heavy gales, strong frost, or silver thaw, or very heavy rains, and is therefore the most trying, both to the ground and to the human frame.

The climate is less severe on the western side of Newfoundland, the land more rich, in consequence of limestone prevailing there; and it is now known to be quite as capable of cultivation as Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, or Prince Edward's Island. It is therefore to that portion that we must hereafter look, as the seat of a population dependent upon an inexhaustible field of agricultural resources. But with all its natural advantages in the scale, we must not allow it the sole weight; for assuredly the eastern half of Newfoundland is cultivable to the extent of supporting a population which can be gradually thrown into it, either for the fishery, or for settlement; and, at this day, notwithstanding the constant fog of misstatement which has been so sedulously cast over it, there is no colony of England which can produce a better fed, a healthier, a better clothed, or a more industrious and better behaved population, than the fishermen settlers and natives of Newfoundland. They are a people who live upon the riches of the sea,

mingled, as they now happily are in some measure, with the produce of the earth, for fish and potatoes are their usual and almost only food. They are beginning, however, to rear sheep, cattle, and swine, and want, as they will all tell any unbiassed person who takes the trouble to ask them, only roads to enable them to live in actual comfort, and derive a return for their severe and constant toil; and that agriculture and the fishery may be carried on together, is, I think, not a subject of very deep question, as we have only to turn our steps to the Irish, the Guernsey and the Jersey fishermen in the Bay of Chaleur, or to the fishermen of the United States, or of any of the coasts of British America, except Newfoundland, to be perfectly convinced of the fact.

The families of the men can work in the fields whilst they are at sea; they themselves, before the fishery begins, and after it ceases, can work also; and there are many intervals from stormy weather, in a fishery carried on along the shores in open boats, when the boatmen cannot venture out, but he can then plough, weed, harrow, dig, or sow, attend to his meadow or his hay-field. In proof that this is done, and largely too, let us walk to any of the out-harbours near St. John's—to Outer Cove, Middle Cove, or Torbay. The extent of cultivation, even on the tops of the

precipitous coast, is amazing; and there are few more pleasant sights than those which this snatching from the wilderness of forest and from the wrath of the mighty Atlantic the means of a comfortable livelihood, affords to the contemplative mind. Yet, ask the first man, woman, or child, you encounter, how they obtained these beautiful fields and meadows, they will assuredly reply, "Please your honour, we had a bit of a road made by one of the Assemblies, after Sir Thomas opened the Governor's Road to our place, and so we can bring the fish and the butter and the eggs and the poultry to St. John's; but if that road was only finished, it is the real farms we would have."

And if an Englishman, accustomed to luxury, and to the railways and bowling-green roads of his own cherished land, looks narrowly to observe what kind of a thing *the bit* of a road that these poor people prize so much is, he only wonders that, instead of being able to bring their dairy produce and occasional fish to market, they venture their legs and their necks at all—for they mostly use a sorry pony,—the said road being partly finished only for about three or four miles out of seven, the rest being either through a marshy wood barely opened, or by a path full of round slippery stones upon the steep flank of a hill.

The present Governor is, however, taking

into consideration all existing roads upon which no repair has been performed to any extent since they were made, and is, moreover, proceeding rapidly with the laying out of the main road from St. John's to Placentia, which will connect Conception, Trinity, Placentia, and St. Mary's Bays. It is nearly eighty miles long, and after going from St. John's to the end of Conception Bay, strikes across the wilderness, south-westerly, to Salmonier River, and thence to Placentia; and there is to be a conjunctive lateral road to Trepassay and St. Mary's.

This has been long in contemplation, and when completed will open out a vast tract of country for cultivation, as well as make us better acquainted with the interior, and intersect the whole province of Avalon, as the peninsula between the Great Bay of Placentia and that of Trinity is called.

The material is everywhere good, the chief expense being the bridging over of the streams; and we hail, with an assurance of success, a measure the most important to the agriculture, the commerce, the military relations, and the welfare of the community of any which has ever been undertaken in the history of this hitherto neglected colony. The opening of this road will revive the long slumbering importance of Placentia, a place which the French well knew was of the utmost account; it will create a

town there again; and as a steam-boat is also to be brought forward, to connect the capital with the thriving towns of Harbour Grace, called the Brighton of Newfoundland, and Carbonier, Port de Grace, and Brigus, in Conception Bay, by the way of Portugal Cove, which is only nine miles and a half land carriage from St. John's, the citizens of the metropolis will have an opportunity of occasionally getting away from the dull routine and eternal sameness which, like that of a large ship on a long voyage, renders life here rather monotonous at present.

The agricultural society of the capital have, therefore, an onerous task to perform. To it the population of the whole island will look with earnest attention; and as its members are already very numerous, and consist of some of the principal merchants and official gentlemen, it is to be hoped that one and all, forgetting personal feud and party feeling, will cheerfully lend a hand in the glorious work, of rescuing the country of their residence, adoption, or birth, from the unmerited obloquy it has so long sustained, arising out of a chain of circumstances originating in national policy, and carried on for the very natural and all-absorbing desire of mercantile speculation, but now no longer necessary, as the Banks are not now merely the nursery of British seamen. The island has risen to the rank of a colony of

Britain, and, as we shall presently observe, in its local and political position and relations, has become of such vast importance to the mother country, that it must be both governed and treated, not only in the same way as her continental colonies, but must be cherished and protected as the key and fortress of them all, and as the main stay of British Transatlantic power.



## PART IV.

### M O R A L   H I S T O R Y.

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#### CHAPTER X.

##### MORAL AND PHYSICAL RELATIONS.

IF we take a good map of the British dominions in North America, we observe that the conformation of the territories east of the Rocky Mountains is that of an immense basin, of which part of the United States, Canada, and Hudson's Bay form the bottom; and the rim, higher or lower, stretches, on the one hand, into the Icy Seas, and on the other, is bounded by the iron coasts of Labrador, Newfoundland, and Nova Scotia, whilst to the south, it stretches away far into the American continent.

On the north-east of this basin, the land has been evidently raised, and split in long parallel lines running from north-east to south-west, or nearly in that direction.

The narrow channel between Cape Ray, in Newfoundland, and Cape North, in the island of Cape Breton, with the Isle of St. Paul's in the

centre, has evidently once formed a part of the continent, and the exitus of the St. Lawrence was, most probably, as long as this great inland ocean or lake was in existence, first effected through the straits of Belle Isle.

Wherever the countries of Canada, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, or Labrador, or any adjacent part of the great American continent, in which these parallelisms of disturbance prevail, are examined, it is invariably discovered that the rocks of fusion form a most prominent portion of the chains of mountains or hills; thus affording evidence that the country has been upheaved by them.

The line of demarcation is most clear and singularly well defined in Newfoundland, and commences, as I have already hinted, at Cape Ray, running in a north-easterly direction across the country, to somewhere above the Bay of Exploits.

Southward and eastward of this line, it is to be presumed, from the labours of the travellers and geologists, (who have passed over, however, only a very small section of it, or have been confined to the coast barrier,) that the trap rocks and the primitive or early transition formations prevail, rendering, as one geologist has observed, that region generally sterile. His observations, however, are balanced by those of others who have seen or wandered farther, and so far from being sterile, it really appears that the greater portion is wholly unknown, and that much of what has been seen away from the iron-bound

coast to which his labours were restricted, is naturally a grazing country, and has very fertile lands about the innumerable rivers, valleys, and lakes. One traveller, Mr. Cormack, crossed the island in a low latitude, and saw, as he judged, most if not all the primitive, and many of the calcareous secondary rocks; these, it is well known, are not all barren formations.

Westward and northward of that imaginary line, the secondary and later transition formations are abundantly exhibited, and the country no longer partaking largely of an arenaceous character, shews its fertility in natural meadows or prairies of vast extent, in its forests of fine timber, and in its general botanical characters; whilst all the useful rocks and minerals are, as is usual everywhere else, plentifully scattered by the hand of nature.

But as we have already touched upon these matters in the geological chapter, it will be unnecessary to go into geognostic details, and we merely make this a prologue to other matter, with a view of fixing the reader's mind upon the facts exhibited in the geological section, and upon the main intention of proving the important physical relations of Newfoundland.

Drawing a line, therefore, for convenience only, from Cape Ray to the head of the Bay of Exploits, we shall consider the island in its physical relations, as divided into these two grand sections, each containing about twelve millions of acres.

In the western, or St. Lawrence half, it has been seen that lime, coal, iron, timber, and fodder,

with good building stone, and clays for brick-making, are abundantly bestowed; that its rivers abound with salmon, trout, and other fish, and its interior lakes are of such extent and depth that some of them are never frozen over.

These lakes, and many large rivers, keep up a continuous chain of communication with the Atlantic coast.

Cod is found everywhere, as the French fishermen have proved, except along some of the north-western parts, and the Gulf is the great rendezvous of herrings and mackerel, as far as the Magdalen Islands and the Bay of Chaleur, which teems with cod;\* whilst the Labrador coast

\* In an exploratory voyage, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, I was either present at the catching of, or caught, the under-mentioned fish and sea animals :—

- |                                  |   |
|----------------------------------|---|
| 1. Lobsters.                     | 18. Halibut.                                |
| 2. Shrimps, or prawns.           | 19. Herrings, { procured                    |
| 3. Crabs.                        | 20. Capelin, { at a fishing                 |
| 4. Cod.                          | { station.                                  |
| 5. Sea-mullet, or trout.         | 21. Porpoise.                               |
| 6. Lance.                        | 22. White whale, or                         |
| 7. Bar-fish.                     | porpoise, } saw.                            |
| 8. Salmon.                       | 23. Whales, several                         |
| 9. Trout.                        | kinds. }                                    |
| 10. Dog-fish.                    | 24. Ox-fish.                                |
| 11. Sea-frog, or crapaud-de-mer. | 25. Par, or spotted river trout.            |
| 12. Mackerel.                    | 26. Brett, or large plaice.                 |
| 13. Scallops.                    | 27. Seal.                                   |
| 14. Bleak.                       | 28. Sea-lizard.                             |
| 15. Eels.                        | 29. Star-fish.                              |
| 16. Large turbot.                | 30. Echini, and plenty of small shell-fish. |
| 17. Dabs.                        |   |

swarms with fish of all the kinds known in these latitudes, and is the country of the seal and fur-bearing animals.

The distance between the shores of the Gulf and those of the Atlantic varies within this line, but nowhere exceeds three hundred miles, and in many places there is little or no land carriage necessary, from the deep indentations of the great bays and the numerous rivers.

The immense importance of the western half, as a place of settlement, having been thus lightly touched upon, let us now look a little at its political and moral relations.

St. John's being within eight or ten days' steam voyage of the mother country, sailing vessels having gone to the southern harbours of Ireland in ten days, and very frequently in a fortnight; and possessing also an admirable and accessible harbour, strongly fortified by nature as well as by art; must ever remain the grand depôt of the cod fishery, and the scene of our naval arrangements, in conjunction with Halifax and Bermuda, for operations on the western Atlantic.

But the southern coasts of Newfoundland, owing to the violent currents caused by the channel of the St. Lawrence, and to the variable depths and deep chasms between the submarine banks, the constant sea-fog, arising from the coldness of the water poured over these from the icy North and from the frozen St. Lawrence, are extremely dangerous at all seasons of the year, the prevailing westerly wind adding to the diffi-

culties of navigation by its frequent boisterousness.

On the western side, the harbours, it is true, are not so frequent nor so spacious, but those that do present themselves on the southern and best section of that western shore are grand and easy of access, whilst rivers of a magnitude unknown on the Atlantic section pour themselves into them.

As we may fairly conjecture that steam is to supersede sailing for war purposes, and as it is improbable that the Americans will for ever continue at peace with us, it will be very necessary, in order to protect our colonies and their commerce, that we should have the perfect control of the St. Lawrence. That control the people of the United States are endeavouring to narrow as much as possible, by so strenuously insisting upon their claim to the disputed territory, which, with their usual sagacity, they foresee, could they only obtain the acknowledgment of it, (although, as a matter of right, they have just as much claim to it as we have to the empire of Japan,) would enable them to border on the coast of Canada so nearly, as to stop up the highway of the St. Lawrence, and the communication with Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, whenever their settlements, which they would then push by every feasible means, should become sufficiently strong to encourage them to make another claim to the navigation of the river itself.

The control of the St. Lawrence by Great

Britain was very inconsiderately weakened by the cession of Barnhart's Island, in one of the best parts of the inland navigation; and to shew how exceedingly ready the Americans were to check the navigation at the outbreak of the disturbances in the winter of 1837-8, I need only observe, that a rumour of the intention of the local authority in Canada to erect a place of security for arms and ammunition at Cornwall, but which was never carried into execution, brought an immediate visit from the engineer officers of the States to Barnhart's Island, and towers were talked of, which would, if erected, have paralysed the navigation of that part of the river. The cession line altogether, as it was originally made, shewed the profound ignorance of military matters and of political rights which our commissioners laboured under, and the extreme foresight, keenness, and activity of those employed by the Americans. It is to be hoped that we have profited by the severe lesson, and that we shall not, in this more enlightened age, throw away advantages which nature herself has set her seal upon.

But still, let the boundary question be decided as it may, the control of the St. Lawrence to Montreal is uncertain, as long as we only depend upon St. John's, Newfoundland, and Halifax, as naval arsenals and places of rendezvous.

Halifax most naturally and efficiently protects the Atlantic shores of British America, and prevents the Bay of Fundy from becoming the seat of American maritime power; holding also in check,

conjointly with Bermuda, the whole Atlantic coast of the United States, upon which nature has bestowed no equivalents for naval purposes.

Bermuda, again, controls the West Indies, the Gulf of Mexico, and the south coasts of the United States.

St. John's secures, in the event of war either with the United States or with European powers, the cod fishery of the north-western Atlantic, which would supply the world; but beyond this it possesses no very serious local advantage, excepting the rapidity of communication with Great Britain, and the fact of all the settlers near it being British born or of British descent, fondly attached to their government, and comprising a hardy class of men whose element is the ocean, and who, from the perils they annually undergo in the seal fishery, are perhaps the most enduring, active, and resolute race of all the great British family.

To effectually control the St. Lawrence, this population must be extended; and to keep up a rapid and steady communication with Halifax, Quebec, Montreal, Kingston, and Toronto, it will also be requisite to colonize and settle the southern part of the western half of Newfoundland. The south coast is already rapidly settling, even under all its disadvantages.

But the difficulty in colonizing the west coast, consists in the French claim to the fishery on the shore; which is, after all, only a concurrent one, and does not at all affect the interior.

The magnificent bay of St. George seems as if

formed for the seat of an extended population. It commands the entrance of the Gulf; it controls the St. Lawrence shores of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, with the fertile island of Prince Edward, the Bay of Chaleurs, and the numerous bays and harbours of the Father of rivers, the extensive fisheries of the St. Lawrence and Chaleurs, and the Magdalen islands, and secures the Straits of Belle Isle and the whole Labrador coast; whilst it affords, by steam, a ready communication with the Restigouche river, that boundary between New Brunswick and Canada which will very soon become of vast importance.

For a steam navy, the Bay of St. George possesses the incalculable advantage of inexhaustible coal-mines, as has been already stated in the geological section; and this coal, a part of the great formation of Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, is better adapted for steam fuel than even the best British coal.

The importance of the coal-mines of Nova Scotia and the Island of Cape Breton, situated as they are at the entrance of the St. Lawrence, and taken in connexion with the coal-fields of Newfoundland immediately opposite, must be clear to any one; and an establishment at or near St. George's Bay would secure these immense advantages, and render British power and enterprise unassailable in that quarter.

Wood fuel is becoming very scarce in every town on the Atlantic border, and even up as far as Montreal; and thus, even in a commercial

point of view, the coal-fields of this region are of incalculable value, and should never be lost sight of for a moment, particularly when we reflect that the geology of Canada does not afford much inducement to believe that that valuable mineral exists there in any great abundance, unless, perhaps, a deposit shall be found on the shores of the Restigouche or in the uninhabited mountains of the interior of Gaspesia,—which, from Captain Baddeley's\* observations as well as from my own, is not very apparent.

Then, again, the eastern half of Newfoundland depends for its fuel, its lime, its best building-stone, its bricks, and its very woodwork for dwellings, upon Nova Scotia or Great Britain. Once open the coal-mines, establish a colony near St. George's Bay, and cut a communication, even if it be only a bridle-path, from the head of Placentia Bay to the Grand Pond or Lake, and settlers will follow; whilst all these articles will find a ready market from a population on the eastern side already amounting to nearly 100,000,

\* This gentleman, an officer of engineers, was employed by the Government to ascertain the geological nature of the country near the disputed boundary and south-eastern frontier, and has given a short account of his observations in the "Quebec Transactions." He was also employed upon the Saguenay country, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and in the interior of Upper Canada, upon the same services—all with a view to future colonization. We wish he would collect all his geological statements under one head, and favour the public with them; for they are of much importance and highly interesting.

—which number the inhabitants of the eastern division of Newfoundland have already, under every disadvantage, nearly if not quite attained.

It has been urged, and very correctly, that in the state of the existing treaties with France, it would be difficult to occupy the shores of St. George's, or any other bay on the western coast, with towns or settlements. This is very true; but there is really nothing whatever but a mistaken notion of English honesty and straightforwardness to prevent it, for the treaties are silent on the subject; and it was owing to the forbearance and magnanimity of George the Third only, that the British settlers were removed at all, from the desire that monarch had not to give the shadow of a cause of quarrel between the subjects of Great Britain and France in their pursuit of the fishery.

The French have no exclusive claim upon any part of the coasts of Newfoundland; they have merely a concurrent right of catching and drying fish. Their territory is defined and limited to the islands of St. Pierre, Miguelon, and Langley, off the centre of the southern shore, and even there they are only allowed to fish one-half of the sea between those islands and the main.

But even supposing there should be a reasonable doubt upon the nature of the declaration of his Britannic majesty, as appended to the treaty of Versailles in 1783, the subsequent explanation upon the American participation fully does away with any exclusive claims to the shores or land

or fishery, by either the French or the people of the United States.

It is not, however, my province or desire to explain or argue upon a question fully understood by our statesmen, and I confine myself therefore to the simple fact. If there are difficulties in the way, negotiation might smoothe them; nor is it necessary to occupy now the actual beach or shore for drying fish in St. George's Bay, to answer all the required purposes of settlement, as I am thoroughly convinced that more good would arise by placing an establishment first upon the Grand Lake, and endeavouring to commence a road thence to the head of Placentia Bay.

The western half of Newfoundland is an unknown but very fertile country, possessing the useful rocks and minerals in abundance; and the Grand Pond or Lake has an island in its western extremity twenty-five miles in length by several in breadth, with a broad strait on each side of it. The climate is pure, healthy, and mild; the distance from the sea about fifteen miles, over an easy communication, which admits of great facilities.

This western half is, it is true, separated from the settled parts on the east by an untrodden wilderness some hundred miles broad; thus, the establishment of an agricultural colony would have no present connexion, other than might be effected for future settlement, with the rest of the island. But when the necessary roads shall be

formed, and the agriculturists shall have once opened the country and commenced public works which may conduce to the future prosperity of that part of the island, it would be more easy to connect it than any other isolated locality, without incurring at once the enormous expenditure of opening a high road across the whole island, from sea to sea.

Thus if we at once attempt actual settlement in the interior of St. George's Bay, (which, on its littoral, is gradually, from the pureness of the climate and the richness of the soil, with the abundance of fish and the mineral resources, forcing itself upon our notice, and positively going on, although surely and silently,) emigration will be much encouraged; and although the claims on the mere shore for fish-drying beaches may for a time interfere, yet the island is the property of Britain, and nothing can prevent the occupation of any portion of it in the interior, or even at the mouths of rivers such as that which flows into St. George's Bay, and which, although at present barred by a sand shoal, may be converted into a magnificent harbour, for the purposes of any future town that shall arise there.

All the naval officers who have annually visited St. George's Bay, from the time of Chappell down to the present day, speak highly of its beauty and the luxuriance of its shores; but colonization has hitherto preferred or been limited to the rocky, barren, windy, and iron-bound coasts of the eastern side of the island.

Newfoundland would then at once take a most important station amongst the North American colonies of Britain, and part of the surplus population of England, Scotland, and Ireland, would find a home one thousand miles nearer to their native country than Canada.

This chapter having commenced with the physical relations of the island, or rather its local advantages, we shall pursue the explanation of them, by mentioning the great importance of an undertaking now in progress for opening a communication between St. John's and Placentia.

At the head of the great Bay of Placentia is a lowisthmus, about three miles long, separating the water of that bay from that of Trinity, on the eastern coast. Across this narrow neck, the French, when in possession of Placentia, formed a road, or wooden way, on which they drew their boats over from one bay to the other, thus affording a substitute for a canal; and so strongly did they feel the natural advantages thus afforded, that it was with the most jealous care and with the most prudent foresight they guarded and retained their long dominion at Placentia, which they looked upon as the key of Newfoundland.

Near this isthmus are several inlets, and from the head of these the nearest route to the Grand Lake and St. George's Bay exists. Thus the country in the interior is everywhere accessible, and has been passed across by a route somewhat more northerly,—that is, from Random Sound on the east coast, to near St. George's Bay on the

west—by Mr. Cormack, who said it might easily be traversed by horses and cattle.

By inspecting the map, it will be observed that the province of Avalon, the chief seat of British settlement, is very nearly an island, cut off everywhere by a considerable extent of sea from the remainder of Newfoundland, excepting this narrow ridge separating the bays above mentioned.

Sir Thomas Cochrane, one of the most active and enterprising of the naval governors that Newfoundland ever had, saw the importance of this insulated tract, and endeavoured to open roads to its littoral everywhere. He projected that to Placentia, which is now again in operation, and which, no doubt, the present enlightened Governor will advance by every means in his power. The distance is about ninety miles, including all the windings; and it starts from St. John's, and cuts the end of Conception Bay at Holyrood, when it proceeds southerly to Salmonier, an inlet, river, and bay, of the great southern bay, St. Mary's; it then takes a westerly course until it reaches Placentia.

By this road, the capital, the large towns in Conception Bay, the thriving settlements in St. Mary's and Trepassay Bays, the Bay of Placentia, and Trinity Bay, will all be connected. Materials are everywhere abundant, and of the best kind; and in the event of a war, the importance of Placentia, as a central position, has been already too well and clearly demonstrated to need here any enlargement upon.

Communication with Halifax would, also, be kept up with greater safety and speed by Placentia Bay than by the more dangerous and tedious voyage round Cape Race, where two-thirds of the wrecks upon the island occur; and when the road is once made practicable for wheels, no doubt the mail might be depended upon at St. John's at least two days sooner than at present. Navigators dread St. Shott's\* and Cape Race, owing to the swift currents and indraught, more than they do any other parts of the coast, and would stand boldly up Placentia Bay with winds that would make them tremble in shaping their course for St. John's.

From the isthmus, communication by land would also be had, through Placentia, to the capital at all seasons; and thus the flourishing settlements in Trinity Bay and in Bonavista and on the north-east shore, would eventually obtain that which is now so much a desideratum—a free intercourse with St. John's. Travelling would not then be a matter of extreme toil and hazard, and the improvement of the sadly neglected poor, in religion and education, must naturally follow.

Their lamentable state of destitution, in both respects, may be gathered from the reports of the Newfoundland and British North American Society for Educating the Poor, wherein it will be read

\* The British Government are about to erect a lighthouse on this coast, at or near Cape Pine.

with extreme pain, that owing to the difficulty of reaching places less than a hundred miles from St. John's, there are whole masses of people who live and die in utter ignorance of everything connected with those subjects, although, when casual visitors have gone amongst them, they have expressed in the most feeling terms their own sense of their moral destitution and degradation.

To the head of Placentia Bay, then, must we look for a future remedy to this evil; to that spot we must turn our eyes as to the place where, in the event of war, the packet station between Newfoundland and Halifax must centre, and thence our explorations of the unknown interior must commence; whilst it must become the pivot upon which the trade of that great section of the island, if ever its geological and agricultural abilities and capacities are developed, must turn:—and that Newfoundland will be a great cattle rearing country hereafter, I have very little doubt. Nature, in compensation for the rocks she has so plentifully bestowed on the eastern half, has also so mixed them, that their disintegration produces a peculiar soil, well adapted for the grasses, upon which chiefly depend the breeding of stock.

The Canadian horse, that admirable and hardy servant of man, should be carefully and speedily introduced into Newfoundland. Long-lived, patient, enduring fatigue and exposure to severe cold, it as far exceeds the miserable pony now used as a race-horse does a worn-out hackney,

thus frequently delaying the transmission of replies to letters another month, owing to their missing the regular return steam-packets.

Thus mercantile transactions remain, in the most important seasons, when the fish and oil are at market, much in the same state as they were before a mail or a post-office existed, and all the business was transacted by private and transient vessels. So great is the delay during the winter months, and frequently also in summer, when the mail goes every fortnight, that the merchants still prefer advising by private ships, and thus the post-office and packet service is embarrassed. If there were a regular steamer from St. John's to Halifax, to meet Cunard's line, the merchants and everybody else would be glad to avail themselves of it, and the post-office revenue would be vastly increased.

It is at the opening and closing of accounts in the spring and fall of the year, that speedy intelligence of the state of the markets is of the highest importance to the Newfoundland merchant; and, in a political point of view, is it not equally clear that the relations with London should be as rapid as possible, when the world at large is in a state of feverish excitement after an almost unexampled period of repose?

An attempt was made in 1841, to get up a steam-navigation company here at St. John's, but it failed, from causes which were obvious on the spot, but not interesting to the British public; and Mr. Tobin, the spirited and enterprising founder of

the first mail to this island, in 1840, had previously furnished two sailing vessels, and obtained a regular contract with the Government.

This contract, however, was not to be of long duration, and is near its term, and it is understood that Sir John Harvey, with his accustomed activity, is already in correspondence with the Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia and the authorities at home, upon this highly-important subject, and will most probably succeed in some arrangement, by which a steam mail-boat between St. John's and Halifax will be established.

Only one steamer, the Spitfire, a man-of-war packet, has ever been seen in Newfoundland harbours, and so great was the novelty, when she arrived in November of 1840, that crowds of persons assembled daily to see her. She was sent to convey a detachment of troops from Halifax, on her way to England.

The physical advantages of Newfoundland it will, we trust, be now known, are very great, and from the peculiar circumstance of its insularity, and its ancient connexions with the mother country, it possesses the moral advantage of a population essentially, and without any admixture, British; it holds the key of the St. Lawrence, commands the fisheries of the north-western Atlantic, secures Quebec, and offers a field, on its western section, for any amount of population which can be thrown into it; whilst its eastern half, hitherto so much abused, it is now clear, can not only by its shore fishery alone compete with rival powers in the

European and West India trade, but can support that fishery by maintaining the men employed, in addition to the wholesome food derived from the sea, by its agricultural resources.

These are not things stated merely at random, or with a view only to disprove the absurd and interested statements which have gone abroad for ages respecting this ancient colony; for the author has no desire to combat those statements, and he is perfectly independent of any local prejudices, being wholly unconnected with party or persons in it, and having no intention of staying long at the island. He is desirous only to prove to the British reader that Newfoundland will, at no very remote period, become one of the most prominent and important possessions of the Crown, as it is already the most ancient and one of the most valuable. It is, in fact, to British America what England is to Europe and to Asia, the sea-girt fortress in which the destinies of those immense and wonderful regions must hereafter be regulated and controlled. So long as our time-honoured flag floats over the ocean, so long will Newfoundland remain as a second Britain to North America.

Nature, in short, seems to have intended a similar design for this great ocean island,—the only one existing from the frozen North to the frozen South, along the immediate Atlantic coast of America,—which is situated at the mouth of one of the longest of American rivers, draining a country inhabited by men who are carrying civili-

zation and science to their ultimate limits, in a climate healthy to a proverb, and unshackled and unembarrassed either by the claims or the presence of the aboriginal possessors.

All that appears to be required to render Newfoundland more comfortably habitable is the formation of immediate settlements on its western side, roads and communications inland, and the introduction of steam-boats. These are beginning, however, to appear, as a company has been formed to place one in Conception Bay, and when once these precursors of population become habitual, a vast change in public sentiment and in private opinions will, no doubt, take place; for facility of intercourse will remove ancient prejudices, and instead of every class and every profession, I may say, striving, in a little capital, to put in advance its peculiar notions for the government of the colony, which it was vainly imagined must follow in the wake of such dissonant and discordant counsels and commands, the power and pre-eminence of a regularly conducted system, based upon that which may be fixed on for the continental colonies, will alone be felt and alone be followed.

## CHAPTER XI.

### GOVERNMENT AND POLITY.

It had heretofore been the policy of the Home Government, to entrust the administration of affairs in Newfoundland to a high naval officer, in consequence of its having been necessary, whilst the banks supplied seamen to the British navy, that a squadron or force should rendezvous at St. John's.

Since the extensive works at Bermuda have been undertaken, that island is found more convenient, in conjunction with Halifax, for the seats of naval power, as it effectually renders the dispatch of ships to the West India stations and the American Atlantic coast of easier command. For many years back, therefore, no admiral or officer of superior rank in the navy has had the government of Newfoundland, which has been usually entrusted to a captain, whose supervision was restricted, in naval matters, to an annual frigate or so, which the admiral on the North American station, an officer of high rank and great responsibility, sent to protect the fishery on the coasts of the island.

A new order of things having taken place in Canada, by which, in all probability, the Ministry were guided in their subsequent views, a military officer of high rank, of extensive knowledge in colonial affairs, and who had administered the governments of two adjacent colonies, was selected early in 1841, to proceed to Newfoundland, then in a state of great excitement, from the disputes between the Houses of Assembly and Council.

His Excellency, however, who had been nominated in the spring of 1841, did not reach St. John's until the 16th of September, in consequence of his having proceeded from his former government to London, where his instructions awaited him.

Soon afterwards, the present Minister for the Colonies, under the impression, no doubt, of the vast importance of finally settling a fixed system of colonial government, sent out a most able diplomatist to Canada, from whose proceedings, questionless, the mode of action towards the other British North American provinces may be inferred. His line of policy may be surmised, from Sir Charles Bagot's answer to the address of the Johnstown district, which is here extracted from the Kingston Chronicle and Gazette, of March 16th, 1842:—

“Gentlemen,—For that portion of your address which expresses your congratulations on my arrival in Canada, and your confidence in myself personally, I beg you to accept my thanks.

“ The other subjects to which you allude are of great importance. You state that for the last few years, you have witnessed a series of proceedings on the part of the Government, calculated to injure and discourage the loyal and respectable inhabitants of your district, and to benefit those whose loyalty is suspected, or who have shewn themselves to be factious partisans. These are charges of the gravest character, which I regret to see brought forward on such an occasion. Unwilling as I am in this place to notice such a matter, I should be wanting in my duty were I to pass it by without declaring my conviction that no officer holding the honourable and responsible position of her Majesty’s representative could, in the discharge of his duty, have been actuated by any other feeling than a desire to promote the public welfare, and to maintain, to the best of his ability, the authority of the British Crown and the connexion with the mother country.

“ You then call on me to inquire into the conduct of Mr. Buell during the years 1837 and 1838, with a view to his removal from the office of treasurer of your district. In answer, I feel bound to state that although I shall be at all times ready and anxious to inquire into any specific charges which may be brought against the official conduct of any servant of the Crown, I see no sufficient grounds for interference in this instance. Mr. Buell was appointed by the administrator of the Government, in the exercise of

the authority committed to him by the law and by her Majesty's commission. You bring no charge against Mr. Buell, in his official capacity, and in the absence of such charge, I can never consent to subject to the general and retrospective investigation which you request the conduct of any public officer in this country.

"I observe with pleasure your declaration that you 'wholly repudiate all selfish, all factious, all national, all religious distinctions, animosity, and exclusion;' and that 'you desire to see all her Majesty's subjects in this country enjoying the most perfect toleration and equality, and the distribution of the patronage of the Executive Government confined to no particular section or party, religious or political.' You may be assured that it is in accordance with these principles that I am determined to administer the government of this province, and that in so doing I but execute the commands I received from the Queen. I therefore call on you to co-operate with me in my task, and with that view to lay aside those by-gone dissensions and party distinctions to which you advert, and which have heretofore been the bane of this fine province. I call on you to turn your minds to the practical measures necessary for the improvement of the country, and to prove your loyalty, and earn the gratitude of your fellow-subjects, by making this province what it was by nature intended to be—the most valuable dependency of the British Crown—a source of wealth in peace, and a means of strength in war."

I have lived many years in that splendid colony, and perhaps have as intimate an acquaintance with it as almost any person could have acquired; and I do not hesitate to say, that the line of policy declared in the foregoing address is the true one, by which it and all the other provinces should be governed. A firm determination to uphold the power of the Queen, mixed with an equally unflinching and unwavering determination to develop the resources of the country, and to turn a deaf ear to party pretension or clamour, will alone do. There is no medium course. Mr. Buell, the person who drew forth the answer, would not have been the occupant of office, had the merits of the case alone been consulted; but Sir Charles Bagot found him installed; and to make his an *ex post facto* case of punishment would have instantly embarrassed his future designs. It happily gave him a fine opportunity of declaring the intentions of the Minister, who is, without doubt, as conversant with colonial matters, particularly with those of Canada, as it is possible to find a statesman to be.

The Legislature of Newfoundland had been dissolved previously to his Excellency's arrival, its quadrennial session having concluded.

This island is now therefore, in May 1842, without the usual legislative bodies, time having been given, as it is conjectured, for the Governor to fulfil his commission, by examining minutely into the real state of the province.

His Excellency is Governor, Vice-Admiral, and

Commander-in-chief of Newfoundland and the Labrador shore, and holds the military command of the troops, which was not given to his naval predecessors, but which, for obvious and necessary reasons, is centred in him. He has a private secretary, and an aid-de-camp, and is assisted in the provincial duties, by a provincial secretary, who has an established office.

The private secretary's is a post of much importance, and the benefit of the arrangement was so well understood in Canada, that for many years back, both the Governor-General, and the Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada, had a private secretary, who, of late, has usually been selected from the Colonial Office, as being well versed in colonial affairs, and in the routine of office. The present Governor of Newfoundland is commissioner as well as governor, and thus is of course enabled to carry out his own views, and the views of the Secretary of State, without having recourse to the public offices of the colony, thus preventing the canvassing of projects; which may or may not be adopted. In all important colonies, there should be a private, as well as a provincial secretary; the former, well acquainted with the policy of the colonial office; the latter, with that of the colony and its resources; so that between the two, the governor is always able to form his measures more easily.

The Council, somewhat differently from that of all the continental colonies, has the executive and legislative functions united, and consists at pre-

sent of five official, and four other members, three being leading merchants, and the other a barrister. Of the nine members, seven are Protestants, and two are Roman Catholics; of which number, one Roman Catholic is an office-bearer—viz. the colonial treasurer. It is understood that these functions will be separated, as in Canada.

The officers of the Legislative Council, are a clerk, master in Chancery, and gentleman-usher of the black rod, with door-keeper, messenger, and assistant-messenger.

The Executive Council has a clerk, the provincial secretary, who is one of the body. The councillors are not paid as in Canada.

The House of Assembly consists of fifteen members :—

Three	for the district of St. John's.
Four	..... Conception Bay.
One	..... Trinity Bay.
One	..... Bonavista Bay.
One	..... Fogo.
One	..... Ferryland.
Two	..... Placentia and St. Mary's.
One	..... Burin.
One	..... Fortune Bay.

The house had, for its officers, a clerk, assistant-clerk, and serjeant-at-arms, with door-keeper and messenger.

In this house, in its last session, there was only one office-bearer, the Solicitor-general. The Protestants numbered six, and the Roman Catholics, nine. The General Assembly was first

founded in 1832, and met for the first time on the 1st of January 1833; its sittings were quadrennial.

It is not my intention to descant upon the unhappy state of things which has existed since the legislative bodies came into activity. The last session was the only one which I observed, and that merely for the period of a few weeks, having recently arrived here. It was, however, as stormy as usual, and as before mentioned, may be best characterized in a few words, by merely stating, that the House of Assembly manufactured bills as thick as hail, and the Legislative Council swamped them as rapidly as lightning.

One of the Roman-catholic members for Conception Bay died during the session, and two candidates having started for the vacant seat, the towns of Carbonier and Harbour Grace became the scenes of some tumultuous electioneering proceedings, which, having been carried so far as to cause destruction to a house, and a serious personal injury to a highly respectable merchant, and other breaches of the public peace, a detachment of troops was sent from St. John's, in the depth of winter, by sea, to maintain the law, and it has ever since remained there. The candidates were both Roman Catholics, but of the different parties who are said to abet or oppose the political management of the priesthood.

The scenes of excitement on these occasions formerly in St. John's were represented as very

alarming, and the troops, in the last instance of an election here, were kept constantly on the *qui vive* ; but nothing more serious than election excitements have ever occurred except at Carbonier.

The members who are elected for the several districts are required to have been, for two years previously to the day of election, either as landlord or tenant, in possession of a dwelling-house ; they must be natural born, or naturalized subjects of the British crown, twenty-one years of age, of sound mind, and unconvicted of any infamous crime.

This is surely extensive enough in all reason ; but the qualifications of an elector are still more so, for they are the same, but with the addition of one year's residence, as owner or tenant of a dwelling, being sufficient.

From this, amounting to almost universal suffrage, it has been asserted, by the opponents of the charter which constituted the legislature, arise all the difficulties under which Newfoundland labours.

On the other hand, the persons opposed to the mercantocracy—which had been hitherto, in consequence of the island being merely a station for the fishery, the real rulers of it, and had become connected with several of the leading and subordinate resident officials, who, very naturally, had no desire to be disturbed, either in their offices or their power—say that, until the natives and the

leading people of the Roman-catholic persuasion can gain admission to the participation of these offices, things can never go on smoothly.

With politics this work does not pretend seriously to deal, but it is absolutely necessary, now the great experiment in governing important and distant colonies is carrying out by such able hands in England and in Canada, to let the public at home be fully acquainted with an outline of the state of things here.

I have been blamed for not having, in a work on Canada written with precisely the same views as the present one, entered at large upon the policy pursued, and the character of the people to be thus governed; but my object then was and now is, first, to get the British reader to understand the country, and to lead him afterwards to reflect upon its importance.

Besides, a military man, unless under peculiar circumstances, is not called upon to discuss views adapted to those in power at home, whose more peculiar duties lead them to develop the national polity; and I shall therefore be as concise and as clear as possible upon a very perplexed and unpleasant subject.

If I recollect right, it was Sir Francis Head, who, in his forcible and peculiar manner, compared the population of Upper Canada, when descanting upon the mode of governing it, in point of extent, to that of one of the large London parishes, (Marylebone.) What would he have said, then, of the difficulties in the way of administering the

constitution and laws of England to a population which may be seen in Greenwich Park on a fair-day, or to that portion of sight-seers in London, who ridedown to that place by the railway—for eighty thousand people very often perform that freak?

But it is not from the extent in mass, nor from the population of overgrown capitals, upon which a statesman can found his decisions respecting colonies; and though Newfoundland is one of the largest of the Atlantic isles, and has scarcely any settlers in comparison to its extent, it contains within its bosom a race, differing widely upon many points, and which are extremely difficult to manage and reconcile.

About one-half, or rather more in number, of the people, is essentially Irish; so much so, indeed, as, considering the verdure of the earth, the absence of reptiles, the salubrity of the air, and the peculiar adaptation of the soil to the growth of the potato, to tempt one very often to call it—Transatlantic Ireland.

We shall observe presently, upon the strength of unquestionable authority, that this Irish population is almost entirely of one religious belief, (the Roman-catholic,) and claims a slight preponderance in point of numbers over the Protestants, who are chiefly English.

The exclusion of the settler in Newfoundland, whether emigrant or native born, from office, place, and power, appeared so degrading that, after long and severe struggles, the inhabitants obtained a local legislature. It has been urged, however,

that this occurred before education had made sufficient strides to render a population, essentially labourers on the stormy sea, very well fitted to understand its utilities and importance; while, on the other hand, it was the only feasible method of making them do so, by giving them that education, and a standing in the colonies, which would oblige them to uphold their manifest interests. Then commenced a fight which, in a moral point of view, was as severe as that of the poet's when he says, of a physical combat—

totas

Implicuere inter se acies legitque virum vir;  
Tum vero et gemitus morientium, et sanguine in alto  
Armaque, corporaque, et permisti corde virorum  
Semianimes volvuntur equi: pugna aspera surgit."

ÆNEID, xi. 631.

On one side, were arrayed the Protestant merchants, their followers, and a phalanx of those Roman Catholics who opposed the priests only as far as politics were concerned, with the great body of Protestant settlers and residents; on this side, the armour of proof was wealth, the sinews of war, whether military, civil, or political. On the other side, stood engaged, in some physical strength, the principal body of the Roman Catholics, headed by the priesthood, and flanked with but small parties of those Protestants here styled "Liberals."

The first army of martyrs called theirs "the Holy Cause of Union and Conservatism," and they were known in local parlance as "the Tories."

The opposing force held up the broad and effulgent banner of their church, and sounded the trumpet blast in the name of religion and Old Ireland; they called themselves Whigs, but the Tories branded them as Radicals.

Yet so happy were these lively and excitable races, in having been met, in their utmost desire, by the king and ministry in 1832, with the boon granted to them so graciously of an island representation, that at first the war was merely one of outposts; the merchants or their nominees were returned for the first parliament by "universal suffrage" and "acclamation," and everything was joy and gladness in the land.

But this pleasant face of affairs quickly altered; the people who had sighed for the honours of a provincial parliament soon found they were as far from it as before, and that the mercantocracy was not quite so foolish or so blinded by the novelty of the thing as to give up one iota of its time-honoured claims and rule.

Then, indeed, began the encounter; and to this day Newfoundland has been agitated, agitated, agitated, not only by the Radicals, but by the Tories—one striving to gain everything, and the other determining not to lose an atom.

These scenes of confusion, however, chiefly took place at the period of each quadrennial election; and it is strange to say, that notwithstanding the character for turbulence and the revengeful passions which these Radicals are most usually described to be possessed of, scarcely anything

worth mentioning in the way of riot or breach of the peace has ever occurred at any of these elections, excepting once, at Carbonier, in 1840; although at the last election in the capital it was deemed requisite to keep the troops on the alert.

The truth of the matter, however, is very soon apparent to any disinterested and dispassionately calm observer.

The Irish are an excitable race, which they themselves do not affect to deny; they are easily led, but difficult to drive. But the good qualities of the Irish peasant abroad are very prominent, and here in Newfoundland they are so busily employed during a great part of the year, in very small and detached sections, that they have no time to think about politics, or about anything else but getting their bread for themselves and their families, to provide in time for a long, severe, and serious winter.\*

I declare, and I am sure I shall be borne out by every class of people in this country, and by all those whose domicile is merely a transient one, that a more peaceable, respectable, loyal, or a kinder-hearted race than the Newfoundland English and Irish, whether emigrant or native-born, I never met with: all they want, now that temperance

\* Every traveller knows that the Irish peasants in the colonies, generally, are not so excitable as at home; and, from being laboriously employed, have little time, as far as the lower classes are concerned, for political meetings and disquisitions.

*has so beneficially operated upon them, is education, agriculture, roads, and the quiet which a firm, decided, and impartial government promises to have in store for them.*

The wise experiment of lying by until the stormy passions engendered during the last session shall have soothed and calmed, so as to permit the Government to carry out its measures unchecked, has done a great deal of good, for some of the most violent of the partisan newspapers are becoming a little more moderate in their tone, and less disposed to extreme rancorous personality and abuse, neither of which, in so small a community, ever does good, but rather injures the cause they intend to support.

I shall not now do more than allude to a most shameful and horrid piece of barbarity, which was exercised upon the editor of the leading Tory mercantile paper, who afterwards opposed himself to the domination of the priesthood; nor shall I do more than glance, on the other side, to the accusation against that priesthood, of having used the altar and their sacred office to foment political disunion. Both proceedings, viewed in any light, are wholly indefensible: the former, un-British; the latter, if correct, so wholly unconstitutional, that it is difficult to imagine it to be true.

A colony, just emerging from a state of almost unknown obscurity, to take its rank in Transatlantic Britain, cannot now be governed by any particular class; the same measure that is meted to her sisters must be dealt to her, and to that

she must in common decency, and in furtherance of her own interests, succumb. Neither priest nor merchant can affect to sway the destinies of a country promising to be of such vast importance, even if they really desire to do so; and I cannot believe that the former would seriously consider such an absurd idea possible, under a constitutional monarchy like that of England, or that the latter, as British subjects, would for a moment entertain it, but rather seek for a firm and settled state of things than for power or rule; and indeed the most intelligent of the merchants openly disavow any such intention, and say that all they want is impartiality. The governor of such a colony should have his hands and his mind equally unshackled by either party or pretension, and whilst the glorious principles of the British constitution are firmly fostered and upheld, there can be no fear of any storm arising in so small a province, devotedly loyal to the Queen and to the mother country. Let that country be truly just and impartial to her nearest and weakest offspring, and, as far as Newfoundland is concerned,

“ England nought shall rue.”

A great deal has been said and written about the universal suffrage question, as exemplified in Newfoundland. It is in reality no such thing, as compared with the question of universal suffrage at home; as here the householders are the real settlers, which fact excludes strangers and the transient population, very justly, from voting.

Moreover, in a prospective point of view, when agriculture rears its head, it will include that useful body, the small farmers; and house-building just now, too, is rather an expensive affair, and therefore the very lowest classes are shut out as effectually as it is possible. If anything can be altered in the state of the constitution, as regards voters, hereafter, it will be the fixing a small annual value on the house owned or rented.

But supposing the qualification for an elector is raised, and that a fixed annual rate for property be substituted, how extremely unfair such a course would be at present; for in the towns, more than half the houses are owned by the merchants and official people, whilst in the country very few as yet have obtained grants of land; and round the capital almost all the land is owned by the same class, who, by the way, of course must enrich themselves, and are paid from the toil of the voters.

If anything will answer in such a state of the constituency, it would be by limiting the franchise to forty shilling freeholders in the country places, and five pound annual renters, or freeholders paying taxes, in the large towns, such as St. John's, Harbour Grace, Carbonier, etc.

But the case is different with the elected there. For the benefit of the people themselves, it is perfectly apparent that some well-defined qualification is wanting; for the consequence of wanting it has been, that very improper persons, as far as education goes, have had M.P.P. tacked to their names in the past session.

Now the Whigs or Radicals, or whatever they may be,—for we must not confound these terms with those used at home, as between the Chartist of England and the Whig here—for here all are loyal,—this party says that the introduction of such persons was not caused by them, but that they were put in purposely by the merchants. Be that as it may, it is evidently necessary that the member of the House of Assembly should neither be a menial, a working labourer, nor an illiterate peasant, and it would therefore be better that he had some stake in the country. The quarrel here is not for empire; it is not with a view to severance from the mother country; it is at present a quarrel about religion and about persons. It is the old quarrel—

“ When civil dudgeon first grew high,  
And men fell out, they knew not why—  
When hard words, jealousies, and fears,  
Brought them together by the ears ;”

and all that is required to quell the extreme animosity is a patient, firm, unshackled, and decided governor, who will neither listen to party assertions, nor permit himself to be made a mere tool of, but will stand or fall by his own decisions.

The religious differences in Ireland should not be wafted over the Atlantic; the Newfoundlander has as little to do with the “ pious, glorious, and immortal memory” as he has with the repeal of the Union and the Liberator: neither one nor the other will apply to this region, nor generally to America.

Orangeism was introduced to Upper Canada, and made a moving battery at every election. I saw there, some ten or twelve years ago, scenes arising from this source, used as it was by a class which had only just emerged from labour to competency, which would astonish the English reader. In one instance, I think it was in 1828 or 1829, a corporal's guard, on its way from relieving a sentry over a jail, was attacked in the streets on the 12th of July, the Orange anniversary, and one of the soldiers left for dead on the pavement. Men, women, and children, were knocking each other on the head with great zeal and perseverance, and all because an Orange procession had passed triumphantly through the town.

It was time for Government to interfere. Canada knew nothing about Orangemen or Ribbonism; the most active of the parties were tried and convicted, and processions of that nature forbidden in future; and since that time these old country distinctions have become out of fashion in Canada.

There are no Orange processions in Newfoundland, that I am aware of; but as the one-half of the population is Irish, it would be well if it was clearly understood, and that emigrants could feel that a man's creed was no bar to his advancement in the colonies when he had crossed the broad Atlantic; for as it would be impracticable to introduce the Chinese system of the yellow stick, or to drum a man either into Roman-catholicism or Protestantism, so it ought to be seen by all

that Government will not consult either the interests nor the private feelings of any parties in the province, but administer the sacred trust without reference to any other qualifications than loyalty, good behaviour, intelligence, industry, and an honestly-gained standing and stake in the country, as adapted to office.

But let us turn to a more pleasing subject, and shew that the nucleus of the machine of government is well formed; and although

“ Of government the properties t’ unfold,  
Would seem in me t’ affect speech and discourse,”

yet

“ The nature of our people,  
Our city’s institutions, and the terms  
Of common justice,”

are all of high importance at a moment when the grand scheme of colonial management is attaining power and permanency in the magnificent regions of Canada.

The Governor of Newfoundland is subordinate to no other authority than that of the Queen and her ministers; which gives him a weight not possessed by the lieutenants in other provinces. He is Vice-Admiral, Commander of the troops, Chancellor, and Commissioner; and thus all the departments of the state, whether imperial or colonial, are under his guidance and supervision.

The civil law is administered by a chief justice and two puisne or assistant judges; and, strange to say, the latter appear to be equal in power,

and almost in place, with the former,—affording occasional difficulties which, to those not conversant with the machinery of justice, would seem are very anomalous, and which lessen the dignity and place,

“ The majesty and pow’r of law and justice,  
The image of the *Queen* whom he presents.

The Chief Justice’s court is called the Supreme Court of Judicature, but he also goes the circuits, and presides in turn in an inferior tribunal,—the central, northern, or southern circuit courts.

Too much care cannot be taken to uphold the dignity of justice in a country where, until of late, the forms of it were a mere mockery, administered as it was by rude masters of fishing vessels, or by officers of the navy, who, however polished and educated they might be, were not, from the nature of their profession, very conversant with civil jurisprudence, and knew as much generally about the Pandects of Justinian as they did about the Code Napoleon, whilst they commonly hated the employment of being made sea lawyers.

The other high legal functionaries are the Attorney-general and the Solicitor-general; and there is also a sheriff, who is annually appointed by the Governor, and who has two deputies, one for the northern district, and the other for the southern.

The supreme and central circuit court has a chief clerk, as also have the northern and southern circuits, and there are three masters in Chancery.

The bar at present consists of eight members, residing at St. John's, and three at Harbour Grace.

The Vice-Admiralty Court has a judge and registrar, with a marshal, but it has had very little or no business since the peace.

One of the great complaints of the Roman Catholics is, that there is no defined law by which the qualification of grand and petit jurors is laid down,—the former being now drawn from “the principal merchants and gentlemen;”—terms of course very vague, and admitting of great latitude in empanelling juries. They say that, in consequence, Roman Catholics are seldom summoned on the great inquests, and seldomer sit as petit jurors in cases arising out of religious feelings and differences; and this appears from the statements of their organ, in references to returns for several years past. But, on the other hand, it is asserted that the Catholics themselves prefer Protestant juries in cases of libel or of pioneering business which, however, must appear somewhat doubtful, as no man exactly likes to be tried by his known and undisguised political opponents only, whatever his notions may be. Fortunately for all there have been no very extreme cases, either criminal or otherwise, of late years, and nothing to call for any great depth of legal acumen or of juridical judgment.

The police of the country is superintended by a paid magistracy. There were two police stipendiary magistrates in the capital, and a third has

just been added, and one or two at each of the outports, who have much the same jurisdiction as the quarter sessions' courts and police magistrates at home. There are also the usual number, according to the population, of justices of the peace and quorum, clerks of the peace, and coroners, high and other constables, jailors, etc. The jails are in St. John's, Conception Bay, Trinity Bay, Ferryland, Placentia, and Burin.

The other public functionaries are, the Surveyor-general and the Colonial Treasurer. The former, there being as yet no commissioner of Crown lands, acts in that capacity, and to that gentleman, the Hon. Mr. Noad, I am indebted for the following facts relating to the mode in which the public lands have been regulated.

The general system of land-granting in this colony is in accordance with the under-mentioned rules, but these are only intended to have effect until the Legislature shall have matured a "Land Bill;" a subject which, in the last session, was recommended to their attention by Government.

These rules are, first, That all petitions for land now in the office of the Surveyor-general, or which may hereafter be lodged there, shall be submitted to the Governor for his approval.

2nd. If the petition is approved, the land will be surveyed, and advertized for sale in three successive Gazettes, and then put up at auction at the upset price of two shillings per acre, and sold to the highest bidder.

3rd. A deposit of ten per cent. to be paid down

at the time of sale, and the remainder of the purchase money within fourteen days thereof.

4th. On such payment, as also of the established fees, being made, the grant will be delivered.

5th. Should the grant not be taken up at the expiration of the fourteen days, the deposit money will be forfeited.

The portions of land thus granted are such as, in the opinion of the Governor, the applicant has the means of improving, or which would be really serviceable to him. The upset price is rarely exceeded, but a sale in a good locality has reached nine shillings per acre. The conditions of the grant are explained in the Appendix, No. 4, where a copy of a deed is given.

It appears, thus, that before Newfoundland can become a country to which an emigrant of small capital will direct his attention, the whole system of land-granting must be altered, and placed on the basis of that adopted for Canada.

Here the crown lands are neither laid out in regular lots, nor surveyed in blocks with diagrams; no townships are formed, and the lots sold are usually those which have been occupied for years, and improved by squatters, or persons who, as that expressive Americanism rather vulgarly designates them, have squatted like a hare upon her form, on the land they have lit upon in their wood-wanderings. These lots are laid off according to the merits of the cases and claims; and in other cases, where people are desirous to

improve the country, their wishes are met as far as possible, and the lots squared and shaped to the best advantage.

This is all as it should be, in the present state of the country; but my experience in Canada shews (and I have had a good deal to do with public land there) that, for want of a good system at first, eternal and embarrassing lawsuits have been entailed upon the posterity of the loyalists and emigrants who fled to the upper province, from the persecution they underwent in the rebellious colonies which were then throwing off the yoke of the mother country. 1791 is not a very old date: it was the year in which Upper Canada became a province, and when land might be had upon much cheaper terms than even two shillings an acre, for it might be then had for the asking for; and yet, although fifty years only have passed, a host of lawyers have been generated, who find ample employment for their time and talents in settling the vexed questions of title and boundaries.

I confess, therefore, that, after the claims of the industrious squatters in Newfoundland are settled, I should very much like to see a good division, on paper, of the whole island into districts and townships, and that the plan of concession lines, as they are called, for those townships, might be adopted, so that future roads would be ensured; for it does not signify a farthing whether the township, as laid down on paper, proves to be a lake or a swamp; it is the general system that

proves beneficial afterwards; and if the district and township lines followed the bearing of the great bays, mountain ridges, and lakes, or N.N.E. and S.S.W., much future trouble would be avoided.

No portion of the crown lands in Newfoundland has been set apart, as in the other provinces, for clergy or military reserves. Some years ago it was placed at the option of the different churches in the Archdeaconry of Newfoundland, to take land to the extent of five hundred acres for each church erected; but it appears that, excepting in St. John's, this permission was not acted upon: thus a source of long, tedious, and most difficult and vexatious discussion, which embarrassed Canada for years, and which is not even yet finally disposed of, does not exist here. The military land required for defensive purposes, has been recognised, and thus admits of no disputes about it, whilst any hereafter required can always be obtained from the Government or Legislature.

The advantages presenting themselves to emigrant settlers—and it seems, by the parliamentary returns, that these are a more numerous class than has been imagined,—are the facilities with which an industrious man may locate himself; the certainty of a market, in the neighbourhood of towns and villages, for any produce he may raise, and for which he will for some years to come receive more than a remunerating price; the absence of any direct tax on his industry; the certainty that sobriety and industry will lead him into comfortable circumstances; the con-

nexion with the fisheries; and, above all, the healthiness of the climate.

Roads are also about to be opened everywhere; and, by the kindness of the Surveyor-general, I have been enabled to place those in existence on my general map.

There is at present no reservation on these grants for timber for the navy, but there is for all mines and minerals, including coal. Excepting as respects the precious metals, it would be as well that this were altered; for no doubt the local legislature will be very careful, if mines are discovered, which they unquestionably will be, to place them under proper restrictions, and to make them a source of revenue.

There remains only to notice the public officers connected with the collection of the revenue; and these are, a Collector of the imperial and provincial customs and excise duties, who has an extensive establishment, and the situations of whose deputies shew the importance of the import and export districts.

The sub-collectors are stationed at Twillingate, Trinity, Carbonier, Harbour Grace, Brigus, and Labrador, and the parts adjacent on the north and east coasts of the Government, and at Ferryland, Placentia, Burin, and Little Bay, on the southern coast, for the imperial revenue; and Fogo, Greenspond, and La Poile, for the colonial; with a preventive officer at the Bay of Bulls.

The Governor also appoints inspectors of pickled fish at the different shipping ports; and the tax

upon consumption of imports has been increased of late years so as to reach three and a half per cent. This will be further noticed in the chapter on Political Economy, more specially devoted to the subject.

The military stationed in Newfoundland consist of the personal staff of his Excellency the Major-General commanding, at present limited to an aide-de-camp, who transacts all the duties connected with his office, as well as with those of the Adjutant and Quarter-master General's departments. There is also a fort-major, to regulate the guards and interior garrison duties, with a town-serjeant.

A full company of the Royal Artillery is always stationed at St. John's, being relieved at stated periods from England.

The fortifications of the island are under the control of a lieutenant-colonel of Engineers, who has a subaltern officer and a civil department, for the construction and repair of barracks, etc., attached to his office, with a clerk of works and the usual subordinates.

This officer, with the Commanding-officer of Artillery and Ordnance-storekeeper, form a board of respective officers for the check and control of Ordnance expenditure and Barracks, and the due examination of all contracts, and other services appended to their individual duties by the Board of Ordnance.

Besides the Ordnance-storekeeper, who is the public accountant for that branch of the service,

and has charge of all the stores and implements of war not in actual employment, together with his chief clerk, there are a barrack-master and his deputies. In short, the system of the military departments is such, that at a very short notice they are capable of energetic action and extension.

In addition to the company of Artillery, which is always complete in officers and men, there is a very efficient regiment, named, until a few days ago, somewhat singularly, "The Royal Newfoundland Veteran Companies,"\* under the command of a major, with the usual staff of adjutant, quarter-master, paymaster, surgeon, and assistant-surgeon, the surgeon being also principal medical officer on the station.

We have said that this corps has hitherto been somewhat singularly named, as nothing strikes a military observer more than to see this veteran regiment on parade, when, instead of decrepit and worn-out soldiers—men whose best years have been past in siege and battle—a fine healthy-looking regiment of comparatively young men turns out, in clothing supplied by the Ordnance, which regiment might take its place in line with some of the best troops of Britain. The officers, it is true, are many of them old soldiers, but there is not one who could not still do his share of fighting. It is said, this corps is to be augmented, as the duty is severe, owing to the

\* This title has just been changed to that of the "Royal Newfoundland Companies."

scattered ports, and the increased importance of the station.

There is now no regular naval establishment in Newfoundland. A small dock-yard, in which is a fine storehouse and some excellent tanks for supplying water, does indeed exist, but it is let to a merchant, and was never of very great importance. Since the peace, or of late years, no man-of-war permanently occupies the station.

There is no militia, but the Governor can at any time create a force of that kind. The fishermen and settlers of Newfoundland have already distinguished themselves when so embodied, and perhaps a finer race, for the combined operations of land and boat service, could not be found ; whilst the young men of the mercantile establishments and the young natives would most readily constitute artillery companies, or riflemen, and be as efficient as their neighbours of the same description in Canada were, in case of need. Eight or ten thousand fighting men would soon be raised in Newfoundland, and combat *pro aris et focis*.

## CHAPTER XII.

### RELIGION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS OF THE PEOPLE.

THE first division of this chapter is rather a delicate one at all times, and in no country more so than in Newfoundland. I shall, however, with the same unbiassed feelings and, I trust, fidelity, which have hitherto actuated me in this work, proceed to develop it.

The population may be stated as divided into two broad lines of religious belief, the Protestant and the Roman Catholic. The former are chiefly English, of the Church of England and dissenters from it, or members of the Church of Scotland or Presbyterians; the latter forming a very small but most respectable portion.

The Roman Catholics claim a numerical preponderance, but as there has been no census since 1836, and that not a very perfect one, it is im-

possible to state the actual numbers of the different religious bodies correctly; but we may state that in that year they had only a numerical superiority of three hundred and forty two, and that there was an error of upwards of seven hundred in that census, respecting the district of Ferryland.

I like to deal with facts, and have, therefore, without surmising about it, taken pains to ascertain the number of Protestants attached to the Church of England, which will be of great interest to the English public, as very erroneous notions are formed upon the subject at home.

With this view I applied to his Lordship the Bishop of Newfoundland and Bermuda, the Right Rev. Dr. Aubrey George Spencer, who, with the greatest kindness, has drawn up the following statement of his diocese, which I feel assured will surprise those who are aware, that previously to his consecration there were only seven clergymen on the island, and that the schools and teachers were as ill supplied. The facts now stated are sufficient, without my presuming to comment upon them any further than to say, that I trust that every Church-of-England-man who reads this book, will put his hand in his pocket, and, according to his means, assist in so laudable a cause

as that which brings the Bible, as George III. so devoutly wished, into the hovel of every poor subject of our gracious Queen, destitute as this suffering class of Protestants in Newfoundland have been, not only of the food of nature, but of the food of life. He, as has been already said, who makes two blades of grass grow where one only grew before, deserves well of the commonwealth; but he who plants twenty churches and twenty schools where the utmost ignorance before prevailed, earns a nobler reward.

A man who is not proud of the religion he has been nurtured in, is like the man described by Shakspeare, that has no music in his soul, and is only "fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoil." The facts developed by the Bishop make us proud of that ancient and respectable church, whose spires adorn the lovely scenery of our fatherland; and which, when we see them afar off, after returning from a "foreign strand," call so forcibly to our hearts the memory of things and beings that were the history of our progenitors, and the thousand interweavings of the affections at the recollections of Old England.

At the risk of being thought a little prosy, I must here relate a circumstance which occurred to me after nearly fourteen years of absence from the place of my birth. I happened to go into a village with a dear connexion, my brother, just as the country people, in their best attire, were

mingling with the other classes in the venerable churchyard, and pouring out of the gates of the sacred edifice, on their way to those "cottages of England," in peace, and with that peculiar look of comfort which can nowhere else be seen.

We had been talking over old matters; this village was a favourite walk from that house in which we were bred under the care of loving and indulgent parents, who had gone on the way before us to that "bourne whence no traveller returns." We had been discoursing, too, of Chartism, of Conservatism, of established order, and of revolution and reckless rebellion; just before the lamentable outbreak in the Canadas, whence I had come with despatches, and to which I was about to return, having been favoured with the quickest voyage almost on record in sailing vessels. We were thus discoursing, when former recollections were still the more strongly awakened by the congregation of a country church, walking or standing amidst the graves of their forefathers and kindred. The discourse on the state of politics throughout the world was in a moment suspended, and the only expression that escaped our lips was one, which I firmly believe is, after all, universal in our beloved country, and would be proved if any foreign enemy were to set his foot on its soil—"Who would desire to cause such a scene as that now before us to be only as a thing remembered?" No: it is to be hoped that when

Englishmen cease to respect religion, the end of things may be near; but as long as education puts out its giant strength, or until Europe shall be again involved in the darkness of former ages, that never can nor will be.

At the same time, education, and, above all, seeing the world, teach us not to despise the religious belief of our fellow-creature, nor to attempt by sarcasm or coercion to make him feel himself an inferior being because he worships his Creator under a form he thinks better than ours.

History has afforded us plenty of examples. What have the French gained in endeavouring to supplant the established religion of France by the goddess of reason and the guillotine? What has any monarch ever gained by enforcing any particular form of faith? Intolerance will do nothing; for though the injured mind outwardly bows and yields the body to the sufferance, the inward man remains unconvinced.

It is by mild means, by the means so forcibly recommended and so plainly pointed out, in the example of the Great Author of all forms of Christianity, that success is certain. Here, in Newfoundland, all this has been going on quietly, and without even being suspected by those residing there. Had it been attempted by coercion, would the picture of the increase of believers in the Church of England have been effected? Behold the result, in the Bishop's own words, in reference

to the ecclesiastical returns which he favoured me with, and which I have placed in the Appendix No. V.:—

“ With reference to those returns, I would remark, that the discrepancy between my report of church members, and that of the census taken in 1836, is occasioned rather by the increase of the whole population, than by the conversions from the Roman church or return of dissenters to our fold.

“ At my consecration to the see of Newfoundland, I found only eight clergymen of the Church of England in the whole colony; the church itself in a most disorganized and dispirited condition; the schools languishing, many of them broken up, and all destitute of that spirit of unity and order so essential to their real efficiency. I am very thankful that I have been permitted, within the short space of two years, to remedy some of these evils, and to supply the most craving of their deficiencies.

“ Twenty-five clergymen, with readers and schoolmasters under them; Sunday-schools everywhere revived or originated; a theological seminary of future missionaries established at the capital; the erection of more than twenty new churches, and the extension and repair of many buildings already consecrated to Divine worship—these are the means which, under the Divine blessing, I now possess for the propagation of the

gospel, and which I humbly trust will be blessed to the success of his cause.

“ The clergy in Newfoundland are maintained mainly by the noble Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, but the people are called on by the Bishop to provide a house and a small stipend, according to their respective means, for their several missionaries. In some instances even this moderate requisition cannot be complied with, from the extreme poverty of the settlers. It is my hope to complete the church establishment in this island during the current year, by the addition of five missionaries, and those will be principally stationed at the south-west part of the colony.

“ With the liberal aid of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, and that of the Society of Dr. Bray’s Associates, I hope also to enrich the clerical and parochial lending libraries, to erect several new school-houses, and to establish a printing press at the Theological Institution at St. John’s. In many of these works I look for assistance from the Diocesan Church Society, in which I hope to see enrolled almost every member of our communion throughout the land.

(Signed) “ AUBREY NEWFOUNDLAND.”

The Bishop then gives a statement of the clergy in the diocese of Newfoundland, comprehending the rural deaneries of Avalon and Trinity,

the missions, and schools—the schools being chiefly in connexion with the Newfoundland and British North American School Society—and of the church members; of the mission to the Micmac Indians; of the First General Episcopal Visitation in October 1841, and of the visitations to the out-harbours and stations during the same year, when his lordship travelled one thousand one hundred and eighteen miles by sea and land, visited thirty-five stations, confirmed one thousand one hundred and thirty-six persons, consecrated six churches, originated or assisted in the building of twenty-one new ones, ordained two priests and eight deacons, and founded or restored more than twenty day and Sunday-schools.

An abstract of that portion of the diocese comprehending the Bermudas is also added.

This valuable paper, Appendix No. V., shews that there were 30,211 members of the Church-of-England in Newfoundland, in 1841; and, including the Bermudas, 39,211;—75 churches and chapels, 34 clergymen, 65 licensed teachers, 4035 church pupils; whilst the church room is only for 19,210.

The Appendix No. V. will shew where the church members predominate most in the different parts of the island, and where the clergy and schools are stationed.

The erection of a cathedral at St. John's is about to be undertaken, the old wooden church in the centre of the town having decayed so much

as to entail a very heavy expenditure for repairs necessary to its continuance; nearly 4000*l.* have been raised towards it in St. John's, and about 2000*l.* in England.

At present, the capital has two churches, both wooden buildings, which are quite inadequate for the increasing number of members; and thus the cathedral becomes a most important and necessary object, and the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge have liberally given 500*l.* towards it, and the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, 500*l.*

The dissenters from the church are very numerous, and the Church of Scotland also has so many influential members in St. John's, that it is intended to erect a church, build a manse, and obtain a minister, for which purposes the Governor has recently made a grant of valuable land to trustees.

The Wesleyan Methodists are, as usual in the colonies, a highly respectable, loyal, and extensive connexion. They have no fewer than 13,000 people, under the charge of thirteen missionaries, in the island.

I am indebted to the Rev. I. Snowball, principal missionary in the island, for the following table of information respecting this truly loyal body of Christians.

Statutory Teachers.	Total Agents.	Members in Society.	Adults and Children in Schools.	Total of Communicants and Scholars.
Saint John's .....	10	172	163	335
Harbour Grace .....	9	116	50	166
Caulonroad .....	39	530	312	842
Black Head .....	15	317	176	493
Island Cove .....	9	130	56	190
Perlicormand Harbours } S. W. Sprague .....	9	134	58	191
Brigus .....	12	139	150	289
Port de Grave .....	7	109	50	159
Trinity .....	5	90	64	154
Bonavista .....	10	290	85	375
Burin .....	12	105	51	156
Grand Bank .....	6	60	50	110
Hermitage Cove and the Western Shores. } J. S. Peach. } visiting mis- } stionary .....	2	3	30	50
Total .....	150	2202	1295	3310

“We have also four day schools, one in Cubitt’s, one in Black Head, and one in Catalina. The teachers of these schools officiate as lay preachers on the Sabbath days, and are partly paid out of our Missionary Fund. Our travelling missionary to the westward also superintends a school in Winter. We have thirty commodious chapels on this island; and we have at least thirteen thousand people under our care, and many others to whom we occasionally preach the gospel. By the first of June, if it be not then too late, I shall be able to furnish you with some further particulars.

(Signed)

“J. SNOWBALL.

“St. John’s, 30th March, 1842.”

The Congregational or Independent church is presided over at St. John’s by the Rev. D. S. Ward, who has also kindly given the following information respecting it.

“This church was instituted in the year of our Lord, 1778, at a time when there was the greatest imaginable destitution of religious means in this island, as appears from its early records. It is identified with the Independent or Congregational churches in England, by whose benevolent exertions it was originally founded; it has always been supported by its own pew-rents and the voluntary contributions of its friends; the first minister ordained in England to take the pastoral charge, was Mr. John Jones, who laboured successfully among them for twenty-one years; and although, since his decease, it has suffered many vicissitudes, in consequence of its peculiarly isolated situation, it has always

maintained a steady and respectable position in St. John's.

" Its present minister left a pastoral charge in Devonshire to take the oversight of this church in the year 1824, and since that period has continued his labours with encouragement and success. There are three public services on the Lord's day, and two in the week; there is an annual fast day observed, and also a day of annual thanksgiving. The members of this Christian communion are respectable in character and number, and their place of worship is well attended. Their Sabbath-school, supported by voluntary contributions, is large, and well conducted by respectable superintendents and teachers.

" It may be but justice to say, that several other places of worship, situated in different parts of the district, originated with them, and were mainly erected by their exertions—viz., the old place of worship at Portugal Cove; the place of worship at Petty Harbour, now Episcopal; the church at Quidi Vidi, raised wholly by the exertions of the minister of the Congregational church, and constituted the joint property of the Episcopal, Congregational, and Wesleyan bodies in this town."

The Roman-catholic church has long been established in this island, and has had several vicars apostolic, who have also usually been bishops "in partibus infidelium." The present occupant is the Right Reverend Dr. Fleming,

Vicar Apostolic, and Bishop of Carpasia. Under his jurisdiction is a vicar-general, and seventeen priests, distributed in the following districts:—

ST. JOHN'S, CONCEPTION BAY, TRINITY BAY, AND  
NORTH SHORE.

St. John's, from Petty Harbour to Kellygrews—four.  
Brigus, from Kellygrews to Spaniard's Bay, two.  
Harbour Grace, from Spaniard's Bay to Western Bay  
—three.  
Bay de Verds, from Western Bay to Point de Grates,  
or Grates Cove—one.  
Trinity—one.  
King's Cove—one.  
Fogo—vacant.

SOUTHERN COAST.

Bay of Bulls, from Petty Harbour to Baline—one.  
Ferryland, from Brigus South to Renews—one.  
St. Mary's, from Trepassey to Cape St. Mary's—one.  
\* Placentia, from Cape St. Mary's to Come-by-Chance  
Harbour—one.  
Merasheen, from Come-by-Chance to Paradise—one.  
Burin—one.

This vicariat, which, when the cathedral is finished, will be a bishopric, at the lowest computation now embraces 40,000 Irish, or their descendants, natives of the island; and the population return of 1836, (Appendix No. VII.,) will afford the best proof as to the points at which their numbers are chiefly concentrated, St. John's being preponderant.

The bishop is absent in Ireland, and therefore it would not be practicable to obtain a synopsis

under his authority; but I believe that what is here stated is substantially correct.

The bishop is engaged in the construction of a stone cathedral at St. John's, upon a magnificent scale, and which when completed will be second to no religious edifice in British America, being equal, as far as present appearance goes, to that of Montreal; and several of the churches erected under his directions, particularly the one at Petty Harbour, are very handsome buildings.

The stone for the cathedral has been obtained in Conception Bay, from a small island called Kelly's Island, where it was found to be in great quantity, and nearly ready, from natural stratification and cleavage, for the use of the mason in the rough walling. The cut stone for the doors, windows, pillars, and front, has been brought from the celebrated white granite quarries of Kingstown, formerly Dunleary, near Dublin, and some of it has been worked by an intelligent stone-cutter into capitals and archivolts, with a freedom and depth of cutting which it could scarcely be expected would be obtained in so hard and splintery a material. I saw some of these cuttings, in the ornamental work of a capital, so deep and free that I could place my hand behind their projecting scrolls and faces.

This edifice will present, when finished, the extraordinary fact of having been raised chiefly by voluntary labour. The stone was brought from Kelly's Island in vessels free of charge, raised from the shore, landed on the bishop's wharf, and

taken up the steep hill on the summit of which the cathedral stands, and handed to the builders, all by voluntary labour—men, women, and children assisting in the work; and in one working season of summer and autumn the enormous walls of this church, capable of holding several thousand people, were raised twenty feet, and the windows arched and secured by several courses over them.

It is a curious sight in the winter months, when the snow is good for roads, to see whole gangs of hardy, healthy-looking Newfoundland fishermen dragging, by main force, tons of stone on sledges for miles.

The present building in which worship is performed is very large, and capable of holding from three to four thousand people, but is in such a state of decay, being wooden, as to render repair too expensive.

The bishop has an episcopal residence, and has obtained a very large grant of valuable land from government, for a church-yard and other purposes, adjoining the new cathedral.

There is a small convent of nuns, of the presentation order, consisting of four ladies, who devote their lives to the education of children, and to purposes of similar utility; but they are never seen, as in Canada, abroad in their conventual habit; nor do the Roman-catholic clergymen wear a distinctive dress, as in that country; these also superintend their schools, which, in St. John's, particularly, are very extensive and well conducted.

The last census, taken in 1836, gives the population of Newfoundland as follows ; but the detail may be studied in Appendix, No. VI., carefully abstracted from public records :—

Males .....	42,074
Females.....	33,020
Total .....	75,094

Of whom were—

Church of England Protestants, 26,740	} Mostly Eng- lish, or of English de- scent.
Wesleyan Methodists, and a few other dissenters..... 10,636	
Roman Catholics ..... 37,718	{ Irish, or of Irish descent.

This would shew a preponderance of the Roman Catholics, consisting then of 342 ; but it appears that that proportion has been much augmented by emigration and births since that period, and it is very possible, if a correct census were now taken, that the population of Newfoundland is little short of 100,000, all British or of British descent, of which the Irish and native Catholics are not fewer certainly than 50,000, nor are the English, Scotch, and their descendants less numerous. The number of dwelling-houses in 1836 was 11,101, and these, it is known, have very considerably increased all over the settled parts of the island.

It would extend this work too much to go into more detail at present, and therefore, after a few short observations upon the population, we must

merely notice some of the leading charitable institutions, after observing that the subject of education, being now under consideration, it is to be fervently hoped that some plan may be matured by which public schools shall soon be put into operation. As many readers think it fatiguing to refer to tables, but are still greatly interested in such subjects, we shall briefly observe that the Church of England members and the Wesleyan Methodists prevail, or out-number, the Roman Catholics in the following electoral districts on the north-east of the island:—Conception Bay, Trinity Bay, Bonavista Bay, Fogo; on the south coast, at Buxin, Fortune Bay, and the western shore.

In Conception Bay, the Wesleyans are the most numerous of all.

The Congregational or Independent church has its chief locality at St. John's, and, I should suppose, consists scarcely, at the utmost, of more than 500 members in the whole island.

The Wesleyan Methodists it is seen already number £3,000.

The Church of Scotland has, probably, (for its extent is unknown here,) 500, chiefly in St. John's, or other large places.

The Church of England, 30,211.

This gives a known total of 44,211 Protestants, who are chiefly English from the west of England, or of English descent, with a sprinkling only of Scotch, and a very few north of Ireland presbyterians.

The Roman-catholic population I have stated as known to exceed 40,000; and so little is yet gathered of the distant stations on the north, south, and western shores, that if the Protestants, as has been demonstrated, amount to 44,211, I have no doubt that the Catholics are quite as numerous; in short, I firmly believe that a correct census would give 50,000 as the real number of each, and that the native-born inhabitants compose more than three-fourths of the whole.

It is known, also, that upwards of twelve thousand French reside in Newfoundland; and in the splendid harbours of the Bay of Ingornachoix, on the west coast, there has been seen a settlement of five or six hundred, and it is supposed that in that remote region they actually carry on a thriving trade, and build vessels, notwithstanding treaties.

The resident population of Newfoundland, therefore, may now fairly be stated at considerably upwards of 100,000; and the transient population is infinitely greater, for the French employ fully 30,000 sailors, nor do the Americans send out fewer than 20,000 yearly to these coasts.

The destruction of the forests, the smuggling, and the absence of all control over these people, as well as the interests of religion, must strongly point out the necessity of settling the western coast at one or two points, of providing for education, and for a resolute administration of the laws, amongst races who are now as much beyond our

ken as they are beyond our control, and who are hourly rendering this splendid island of less and less value to the British crown.

As is the case in all British colonies, charity is conspicuously upheld in Newfoundland. The oldest institution of that nature is the Benevolent Irish Society, which was founded in 1806. The Natives' Society, founded in 1841, is likely to become a very important one, and shews that the native-born population are already, as in all the other provinces, asserting their claims. Its ostensible object is the assistance of the native poor, and, if judiciously managed, it will hereafter hold a balance, the scales of which will remain unweighed down by either of the contending parties, for persons of all professions and creeds are admissible, the only "ticket," as Brother Jonathan calls these qualifications, required, being the fact of having first seen the light in Newfoundland.

The Mechanics' Society has the same views and objects as similar institutions in Britain.

The Dorcas and Indigent Sick Societies are very useful institutions, supported by the example and industry of the ladies of St. John's.

The British, St. George's, and Scottish Societies, are also charitable institutions, whose duties are the same as those so named in the other colonies.

There are thus quite sufficient means for ascertaining and ministering to the distresses of the poor, which, in severe seasons and when provisions

are high and the fisheries not so productive as usual, have been very great.

For the diffusion of knowledge there are very few adequate means at present; but the principal steps towards it have been taken, and this year has been marked by the formation of an Agricultural Society; a Literary and a Young Men's Society are also thriving. But I should fail in doing my duty to the reader if I were to say that literature has held its head up here, for it has been very much neglected hitherto, and the young men now see the immense advantage of having libraries and places of meeting to improve their minds during the long and dull winters, when business is almost at a stand, and when no evening resources, other than those of an objectionable kind, have been available; they are accordingly exerting themselves.

A theatre has been long established by amateurs, in which a company of players from the United States have been performing this winter; but the taste for this amusement is not very great amongst the wealthy classes, who do not mingle very frequently in public, owing, probably, to the acerbity with which religious and political differences have been maintained of late years.

In attempting to describe the manners and customs of the people of Newfoundland, I must necessarily be very concise, for the distinction of classes is very strongly drawn, and requires, therefore, very little knowledge of human nature to develop.

It is not here, as in Canada, that marked national features betray the immense importance to the future welfare of the country, of being well acquainted with the feelings of the inhabitants, with their prejudices and peculiarities, or that the statesman and philanthropist should minutely and carefully study them, in order to benefit the generations to come, in order to secure their respect and love for the fostering mother who now sways their destinies. Newfoundland has never before been a colony; it has been merely like a great ship moored to the banks, for the advantage of searching the mines of oceanic wealth; and as naval law alone dictated its operations, so was it judged by the British legislators to be of utility only as the means of securing a vast exterior commerce. England would have waded in blood rather than have had a rope of this ship displaced by other hands than those who manned her; but by keeping this noble vessel too long at anchor and inactive, she was overreached by those who, when her great guns ceased to alarm, took advantage by securing such of the best fisheries as were out of their command.

In short, the merchant came to Newfoundland, not with any idea of living there for the rest of his days, but to amass in this new Sea Peru, sufficient wealth to enable him to return to the scenes of home and youth. Gradually, however, those who followed him to assist in gathering the spoil, not acquiring more than, or so much as, competence, found that circumstances rendered it

necessary to adopt the country for their children, and in some rare instances the merchant himself followed the same course, after having laid out much capital in comfortable houses or in island speculations. The thoughtless sailor and fisherman found a climate in which they *could* dwell, instead of the barren and inhospitable desert, where fog and frost, frost and fog, (with furious storms of wind and snow,) were the only alternations in the weather. These poor but industrious men also soon found, when the great mooring place at the banks had become forgotten and disused, that foreigners had over-mastered them and their employers, and that ships, brigs, and schooners, might now seek employment in other trades and in other regions, and that to carry on the fishery and live, he must build small boats, and creep along the shores only.

Nature, with that singular and wonderful care which is everywhere displayed for the interests and well-being of man, had rendered the coast as much the resort of the cod as ever was the great submarine banks, although she had, perhaps, peopled these coasts with a smaller kind, equal, however, in fecundity and goodness.

To pursue this shore-fishery profitably, it was soon clear that the ancient plan, of living only during the summer in this Ultima Thule, would never answer, from the expense of abandoning the boats and stages, and of the going to and returning from Britain; and a new order of things was introduced.

Many respectable merchants continued to reside constantly in St. John's and other harbours, and when they did not return, they sent from the great mercantile houses of London, Liverpool, the west of England, Scotland, and Ireland, a superior class of agents and a highly respectable body of clerks and young aspirants for mercantile knowledge and honours.

The officers of government also became fixed residents, and thus the course of ten or twenty years made a surprising difference in the face and aspect both of the land and of society in St. John's, the capital, and in the other leading towns; whilst the shore-fishery, having increased to an incalculable extent and importance, and agriculture being about to rear its head effectually, the working classes are every year adding both to their numbers and to their comforts and respectability.

There is no other distinction, therefore, in persons and ranks here, than those usual in all the provinces of the British empire, arising from official station or wealth.

The upper class, which at home would almost without exception be the middle class, consists of the clergy, judges, councillors, and officers of the state, with the oldest and most wealthy of the merchants holding office.

The middle class—that class so well named in England as the “shield of society”—consists here of the newer merchants, the conductors of the business of the extensive firms at home, and a growing, most important, and rapidly-increasing

number of the sons and daughters of those respectable men who have chosen Newfoundland as the country of their children. It is only necessary to attend at a public charitable ball to see these excellent people in their real character; it strikes every unaccustomed beholder with admiration, for a finer, healthier, or better dressed and behaved colonial "gentry" there does not exist. Professional men, lawyers, and medical men, belong, as in every other colony, to both these classes.

The third class I have no name for, as neither that of labourer nor that of peasantry is applicable.

The third class in Newfoundland are small farmers, small shop-keepers, and fishermen, or fishermen exclusively. They are well clothed, and usually wear a distinctive habit, which is a blue jacket and trowsers, of good cloth, and a low-crowned glazed hat. To see these people in a public procession, one is tempted to observe, with the Emperor of Russia, when he first saw the English in mass, on the occasion of the visit of the allied monarchs, "*Where are the poor?*" I have seen them in every possible situation, and have uniformly observed them quiet, orderly, and respectable; even in the pit of the theatre, which is frequently during winter filled with them, not a word nor an indication of row or noise occurs.

In the towns, of course, there is a still lower class, which is engaged, as elsewhere, in domestic or in menial offices, or employed in hewing

wood and drawing water, or as carters, farm servants, etc.

But still, with all these advantages, there are miserable and destitute citizens enough in St. John's, and plenty of poverty in the out-harbours, for which two causes may be assigned.

The fisherman, formerly, during seven months of winter weather, had no resources but idleness or drink. If he was industrious, it is true, he might employ himself, when he resided near the towns, in cutting and hauling fuel with his dogs, from the woods, which have hitherto been looked upon as common property; but since the opening of the coal-mines in Nova Scotia and Cape Breton even this source of profit has been diminished at the capital, for those who can afford it always use coal for firing, the hard wood being scarce, and the sparkling and crackling spruce and fir kinds of soft wood not pleasant to burn in an open grate, and too expensive in close stoves, which are not in general use, as in Canada, for that reason.

The periods of hauling by men or dogs on the snow are very short, and very precarious and difficult, as, the climate being one in which high winds and rain prevail, one night or one day of wind will lay bare all the approaches to the town; the poor, therefore, who only use the wood fuel, frequently suffer much from not being able to procure it in severe and changeable winters. The consequence has been, until the successful intro-

duction of temperance pledges and societies, that those unfortunates, from the accidental causes of a failure in the fishery, from constitutional idleness, sickness, or inability, either took to drinking, or suffered indescribable miseries.

The other cause has been the want of roads and the extensively scattered nature of the coast population. There, if the fishery was unproductive, or the winter very rainy, the solitary settler had no means of answering the cries and wants of his family, however industrious.

But a change is coming over the nature of society here. Temperance has made great progress where it is most requisite, and that is amongst the industrious poor. Agriculture is patronized by the government, and no man presumes any longer to assert that the necessaries for a poor man's existence—potatoes, hay, and oats—cannot be successfully raised, whilst, with common attention, every "tilt," as the wretched dwelling of the extremely poor is here called, might be supplied from a small garden with cabbage, and all other common vegetables and herbs.

No person who has travelled much, not even in those districts in Ireland where the mud hut is scarcely cover for the inhabitant, can fancy the extreme wretchedness of the accommodation of the very poor in this island. I walked yesterday, with some gentlemen of St. John's, along the shore in the village of Portugal Cove, not ten miles from the capital, and found a family, consisting of a woman and seven children, in a hut of which

the following is a feeble description:—It was, perhaps, about eighteen feet long by fourteen in breadth, for I did not measure it correctly, as it was surrounded by fences and snow, and consisted of one apartment only, in which the whole family, excepting the father, who had gone with his dog to the woods for fuel, were squatting round a scanty fire, and were of all ages, from that of womanhood to the nursed infant, and they were all females excepting a very young boy or two.

This dwelling, which was as lofty as a barn, was built of poles or sticks of very small diameter, placed upright, irregularly together, and braced every here and there. The chimney, formed of rough unmortared stone, adjoined the roof, which was also of poles at one gable end, and was finished above the ridge pole with boards, or short slabs of wood. The roof had been covered with bark and sods, and some attempts had originally been made to stop or caulk the crevices between the poles, both of the roof and walls, with moss or mud; but these substances had generally disappeared, and in every part of this wretched dwelling, was the light of heaven visible, and everywhere must the rain have fallen in it, excepting towards the gable, opposite the chimney, which had some pains taken with it, and where the unfortunate family slept on their rags. And yet these people neither solicited nor expected charity, and we had sought the man, in order to engage his services for an hour or two profitably. The miserable mother looked lean and yellow; but,

strange to say, in a climate where the thermometer was then not many degrees above zero, the children appeared, although clothed in light summer rags, healthy and strong.

The house had evidently been built in better days, upon too large a scale; but even this hut is good, compared with some of the summer tilts, which are constructed to carry on the fishery in the little harbours and coves, where, very often, a huge boulder or projecting rock forms the gable, or actual rere-dosse, as our ancestors called the only chimney, or substitute for a chimney, and from this chimney-rock, a few slight poles built up erect in an oblong form, with a pole-roof sloping against a bank, or rock, the whole covered with bark, when it can be had, which is seldom, or with turf; and with turf piled up against the side walls, without a window, and with only an apology for a door; and the whole interior scarcely affording standing room;—compose the only habitation which often contains the poor fisherman, and his generally numerous family, the smoke escaping always from an old barrel, or a square funnel of boards placed over the fire.

When winter sets in, or as soon as the fishing is over, this tilt is abandoned, and the family retire to the woods, and erect another somewhat better. There they are rather more comfortable, as the woods afford fuel and shelter, and they live on fish dried or salted, and potatoes, if they have been provident enough to raise them, with occasionally the milk of a goat; numbers of these

animals being kept, and suffered, like the dogs, to forage for themselves.

These are the very poor, and I am sorry to say, they are somewhat numerous; but even in the capital, they are not clamorous nor obstinate beggars, and to the credit of the higher and middle classes be it said, every exertion is made to ameliorate their condition.

The fishermen and small farmers, who have by success or industry obtained a sufficiency, reside in comfortable dwellings, generally substantially built of Newfoundland wood, which, in this part of the island, does not attain a large size, the largest stick or plank I have seen, being not more than eighteen inches at the butt, or more than six or eight inches broad, when sawn into boards and weather boards.

The house, in the country villages or stations, and in the farms, usually consists of one common room or kitchen, at the end of which is a capacious stone chimney, with a deep recess, like those of the old farm houses in Buckinghamshire, where benches and chairs are placed, and where the old people sit, or the females knit stockings, woollen shirts, and mittens, or fingerless gloves, for the men. There, during the summer, you always see the good housewife busily employed in some culinary occupations; whilst the maidens are either assisting her, knitting or sewing, rocking the cradle, spinning, or minding the infant learning to walk in that most ancient and most abominable invention, which consists of two

circles of wood, over the upper of which the poor child's arms lean, to the manifest danger of rendering it round shouldered for life.

The floor is boarded, and usually raised above the ground or cellar, which has stone walls, and there are plenty of windows; but I do not observe that these are often opened, partly because they are usually fixtures, and partly from the necessity of rendering them weather-tight in winter. Almost every house has a deep porch to cover the door from the snow, rain, and wind; but you very seldom see the door shut.

The sleeping places are rooms separated from the kitchen or common room, by a bulk head, or wooden partition, and the roof or garret is also thus employed.

The great difference between a small farmer's kitchen at home and here, consists in the absence of strings of onions, hams and bacon, depending from the ceiling joists. Here you see scaling guns, fishing apparatus, a fresh herring, or some other fish just caught supplying their place. But still the good things of this world are not wanting. I never walked into one of these kind-hearted people's dwellings (and I very often did so during my rambles last summer) without immediate and silent preparations for the stranger; for they do the same to all respectable persons, and in my instance, very frequently at first they did not know me. The good wife puts some tea in the pot, spreads a clean cloth, if she has one at hand, or time admits, boils some eggs, produces a pat of fresh butter, and a large jug of milk, with a loaf of home-made

bread; or, if that is wanting, white biscuit, and without saying a word during the preparation, expects her visitor, whether he is hungry or not, to fall to, being perfectly satisfied if you drink three or four cups of tea (luckily the cups are usually small) and eat a good deal of bread and butter, and two or three eggs, which she always takes good care shall not hurt your digestion by their hardness. They never offer fish, of which I dare say, from experience, they think you have daily enough; and of course fresh meat is seldom seen, but on rare festive occasions, when the fatted calf or the household lamb graces the board. They have usually, however, a store of flour, and of salt beef or pork, which, with their poultry, would afford at all times a good table, were it not that the latter are too profitably employed in producing eggs for the market, and the former too dear to eat much of.

The amusements of the people are not very varied. From the middle of February until November, they are fully occupied in attending to the fisheries, the fitment of the seal fishing vessels or *soilers*, as they are vernacularly called, beginning early in the year.

Formerly, these ships were all ready for the ice on St. Patrick's day, the 17th of March; but it was found, that sealers from Europe anticipated them, and that the best time to start for the floating fields of frozen water, was as early as the 1st of that month; accordingly, all is bustle during the latter part of February, and the stone-

ballast which has been collected in the fall of the year and during winter, is now put on board, with the requisite supplies of water and provision; and should there be an intense frost about this period, which occasionally happens, the labour of getting to sea is increased at St. John's, by the necessity of cutting channels from the wharfs, as far as the Narrows.

This year the harbour was frozen, but not very thick, and a beautiful brig, built of Newfoundland timber, and built also by a native and self-taught artist, was launched as early as the 26th of March, by cutting a way for her across the harbour.

The sealers are seen coming in from all parts of the country to St. John's, with their bundle of spare clothing over their shoulders, supported by a stick, six or eight feet long, which is to serve as a bat or club to strike the seal on the nose, where he is very vulnerable; and also to answer as an ice-pole and gaff, or ice-hook, with which landing is effected, as well as for drawing the spoil over the floes and fields. He has likewise his long sealing gun, if he is intended as a bow or after gunner, or, in other words, as an expert marksman, to shoot the animals where they cannot be otherwise readily destroyed. These gunners rank before the mere batmen, and have some trifling remuneration in the way of a remission of the charge of berth money, which the sealers pay to the merchant who supplies the vessel and stores, for permission to go the voyage; the out-

fitting being defrayed by the receipt of one half of the cargo of seals, the other half going to the adventurers, with these and other deductions for extra supplies.

Nothing can exceed the danger and hardships of such a life, yet nothing in the commercial marine pays so well as the sealer when successful. It would be needless to expatiate upon the horrors and constant danger of running to the northward in small brigs and schooners, of from 50 to 150 tons, and in large decked boats of half that size, in the month of March, in such seas and on such coasts as those of Newfoundland and Labrador, with a constant set of ice from the frozen ocean, driven southward by a powerful current, and in a most variable temperature, with the total uncertainty as to where to find the seals.

The seal casts its young, or whelp, as it is called, about the middle of February; and as the young animal grows very rapidly, and contains a purer oil than the old ones, it is chiefly sought after. These whelps remain about the ice near which they were born for a considerable time, and about three weeks after their birth are very fat and in perfect condition.

In a favourable field, hundreds of them are soon deprived of life by the batmen, who merely strike them on the nose. Five or six kinds frequent the shores of Labrador, and are found on the ice; of which, the hooded seal, the great seal, the harp, and the rough seal, with the common kind, so like a water-dog when swimming, are the best known.

During the first stage of the growth of these amphibious creatures, it is necessary to their existence that they should pass long periods of repose out of the water, and thus are seen the vast hordes which congregate on the Seal Meadows, as the great fields of floating ice on which they thus live are termed. Their repose is chiefly taken during the time in which the sun is above the horizon, and then it is that the hunters attack and destroy them.

The skin or pelt, with the blubber or fat, is reserved, and the carcase thrown away, excepting in the shore-seal fishery in Labrador and some parts of Newfoundland, where the whole carcase is reserved until the sun has acquired sufficient power, about the beginning of May, to thaw it, and to commence the process of extracting the oil, or where there is not time or opportunity from the state of the weather to perform the sculping, as it is termed.

The principal object is to secure the animal's skin with as little damage as possible, and therefore firing at them is not resorted to, except in case of its being otherwise impracticable to kill them, the large seals often being so pugnacious as to require the gun, and the hooded seal having moreover a membrane like a hood, which he can draw over his nose, and inflate so as not to be destroyed like the others with a mere blow, unless he is fast asleep. This seal is very fierce. The reason why it is requisite to skin them soon after death is obvious, as they soon freeze; and

because the pelt, with the fat adhering, occupies very little room in comparison to the whole body. Some of the flesh of the cub-seal,—the heart and liver, are also eaten by the men.

When the cargo is brought to port, the blubber is cut off from the hide, and put up in vats, in small pieces, where it is left to melt and dissolve by atmospheric heat and influence. These precious receptacles are of very large size, square, and built of slabs or small timber, over which planks are fastened, and the whole tarred outside generally. The inside is so contrived that the bottom receives the snow-water and the watery particles from the fat, and this is occasionally drawn off.

The first, or upper running of the blubber, is the pure or pale seal oil, and is collected from channels made of leather, at about a third of the height from the top of the vessel, along the sides of the vat. At different intervals lower down are other channels, and the oil thus obtained decreases in purity and value. The worst part, and the most horribly offensive to a stranger's olfactory nerves, of the whole process, is the rendering down of the remainder fat and integument by fire, in large kettles or cauldrons, which produces the common seal oil of commerce.

After the fat is scraped off the pelts, they are carefully extended severally, and between each skin is placed a layer of strong salt; thus they are laid into piles, and packed for transport, in bales of from five skins in a bundle to such proportions as are required by custom or stowage.

The reader can easily fancy, if he has read the accounts of Parry, Franklin, Ross, Back, Scoresby, or other navigators in frozen regions, what adventures must be achieved to render voyages of this kind prosperous, what accidents must occur, and what disappointments must be endured. The loss of life, too, is sometimes great, for the poor sealers are occasionally left on a field during a snow storm or a fog, and vainly strive to regain their boats and vessels, or sinking in their eager pursuit through holes, soft places, and pools in the ice, cannot be saved by any exertion. Then, again, carried on as this pursuit is during the variable months of March, April, and part of May, the ships and boats not being specially constructed for encounter with ice as the whalers are, but defended generally by only a few poles slung over their sides, meet in all its terrific grandeur and dangerous power the ice, piled like Ossa upon Pelion, with oceanic fields stretching beyond ken even in the clearest weather, all in motion, whirling, dashing, crashing, and rushing along, with their own peculiar thundering and frightful sounds.

Picture the situation of a small vessel on a dark, howling night, caught in a vast field, and regularly beset, the wind roaring, the arrowy sleet and snow, sharp as myriads of needles, rendering it nearly impossible to keep the deck, and every one expecting the tempest momentarily to change its direction, the ice to dis sever, and the vessel to be hurled along at its mercy, with all the standing and running rigging immovable from frost.

Man, for the sake of gain, creates these situations for those who, in order to obtain the mere necessities of existence for themselves and their children, consent to brave them.

The getting beset, or frozen in, constantly happens. I have seen many of the sealing vessels, which had got thus caught to the northward, drift in a huge ice-field close to the shore near the capital, and the anxious relatives of those on board mounted on the signal-house, with their glasses endeavouring to ascertain their state.

The number of seals annually destroyed in this fishery on the coasts of Newfoundland and Labrador, where they are also caught in tide-nets, is really almost beyond belief, if it was not well ascertained and authenticated; and hence the inducement to this profitable but dangerous employment, when the ice is on the coast, and before the cod-fishery can commence. Upwards of half a million of these denizens of the ocean fall victims in each year to the value of their skins and oil. Of the latter, in favourable seasons, twelve thousand five hundred tons have been exported.

If by the addition of a chemical process to the present simple mode of manufacturing the oil, it could be wholly deprived of its offensive smell, it would be more extensively used for chamber-lamps, as it burns equally bright, when well prepared, with the best spermaceti, and is not half the expense. The odour of the best pale seal oil is very faint; and such is its utility, that the commissioners of lighthouses in the island have

from continued experiment adopted it in preference to the spermaceti, which caused a great annual outlay. I have tried it for night and hall-lamps, and found it answer admirably, and to endure much cold, and when enclosed in a common glass lanthorn it will soon create heat sufficient to keep it in a fluid state during the coldest weather of this country. We must not judge of the pale seal oil by the common seal oil of commerce, which is rancid and offensive. I do not, however, think it would answer well for parlour lamps, at least for those on the argand principle, as it contains more water than the best spermaceti oil does, and speedily corrodes the brass with verdigris; but it is better than olive or other vegetable oils in this respect.

I forgot to mention that, in favourable circumstances, many of the sealers make more than one trip to the ice, continuing this hazardous occupation until the month of June approaches,\* when

\* The seal fishery has been unfavourable this year, and consequently there is much distress. I met a young woman last Sunday, coming to town from a distance of six miles, with a hen under her cloak for sale. Her husband, a young, healthy man, had just returned from the seal-fishery. The vessel he was in caught only one seal; he therefore had nothing to receive, and returned, after a perilous ice voyage, to his wife and four infants—the oldest not more than six years of age—without food to sustain them, in a wretched tilt, or hovel, who were all actually starving, and were obliged to have recourse to the hen, on the Sunday, to raise them the means of existence for the next day. I went to the hovel, and saw this. The man had tried to obtain work, but could not, owing to the severity of the weather this unusual spring: his spirit was broken.

it is requisite for all hands to return, to prepare for the annual visit of the capelin, or cod-bait, and for the cod-fishery.

The cod fishery, although not so dangerous, being carried on chiefly along shore, or near it, and in summer and autumn, has its adventures, too. It is needless to enter into a long description of the mode of catching and curing cod, as it is now well known. The fishery commences usually about second week in June, and is carried on in boats manned with two, four, or more hands, according to size and the distance required to go from shore; most of these are mere open boats, and many have no sail, and are worked by girls or boys. Most of them have, however, four men, who have each two lines placed over each gunwale of the boat, and armed with double hooks. The bait, according to the season, being capelin, entrails of fish, herring, mackerel, lance, and cuttle-fish, or squids.

When once favourable ground is reached, which is very often near the mouth, or even in the mouths of the bays, harbours, and coves, the boat is anchored, and the lines thrown over so as to reach the bottom. Then begins a most laborious operation if the fish are plentiful, for as fast as the man hauls up one line he disengages the fish, or gaffs him if heavy and not well hooked, throws him into the boat, and then hauls upon the other, having first rebaited his hook if necessary, and let the first line down again, and so on for hours together. When the boat is full, or there is no prospect of more fish, she proceeds to her stage, or

curing station; and this admits of little delay, as in summer the fish soon require salt to make them fit to pack.

A chapter might be written upon the construction of stages, which I have already concisely mentioned, the modes of splitting, salting, and packing; but it would not prove very interesting, and the process has been often described.

The most serious draw-back to the successful accomplishment of this tedious and laborious process, during which the fish must be often separately turned and shifted by hand, arises from the fickleness of the weather in the autumnal months—heavy fog and rain being very prejudicial, until the fish is finished and placed in heaps, which resemble in shape the two-penny sponge cakes of the confectioners.

These heaps are formed by placing a row of dried fish, with the tails outwards, circularly, and so continuing to pile, until a circular mound is raised, whose upper circumference, from the varying sizes of the fish, is larger than the lower; after which a semi-conical top is raised, and the whole covered with bark, fastened down, if intended to remain long, by stones or withes.

The fish is split, and the liver, tongue, and sounds collected into separate receptacles, and the entrails and heads pitched through a hole on the stage, when they fall on the beach, or into another stage, placed to receive them, as this offal is now universally sold or used for manure.

Thus constant and heavy labour is required,

and what with the seal fishing, the collection of bait, and the catching and curing the cod, perhaps in no country are the labouring population more incessantly and toilsomely employed than in Newfoundland; whilst the migrations of the fish themselves in pursuit of food will sometimes render one station productive, and again in another season poor.

As it will, however, be necessary to enter into some particulars of this celebrated fishery in the next section, it may be as well perhaps to mention the relaxations of the fishermen from their labour. The winter, with the industrious, requires much time to be passed in mending nets for cod, as well as for the herring and other fish, caught in the large seines used by the larger class of boats; also in procuring fuel, and, when the spring advances, in repairing their boats.

The nets and the boats are frequently lost and damaged in the fall of the year, by sudden heavy gales of wind catching them at anchor, and entailing serious labour and expense; nor is even the Sabbath always a day of rest in bad weather.

Two special seasons are, however, devoted in the large towns to merry meetings—Christmas and the New Year. At St. John's, on St. Stephen's day, little boys go about from door to door, with a green bush from the spruce trees, decorated with ribands and paper, (in which, if they can get one, is a little bird, to represent the wren,) and repeat the following verse, or something of the same kind:—

“ The wren, the wren, the king of all birds,  
Was caught on St. Stephen's day in the firs,  
Although he is little, his honour is great ;  
So rise up, kind madame, and give us a treat.  
Up with the kettle, and down with the pan ;  
A penny, or twopence, to bury the wren.\*  
Your pocket full of money, and your cellar full of beer.  
I wish you all a merry Christmas, and a happy new year.”

This ancient custom is, of course, derived from home, as well as that of the mummers, who assemble on New Year's day; the former from Ireland probably, the latter from the West of England.

There was, and still is, a sort of saturnalia amongst the lower classes, in St. John's particularly, and which last three days, commencing at Christmas, with boys only.

The mummers prepare, before the New Year, dresses of all possible shapes and hues, most of which are something like those of harlequin and the clown in pantomimes, but the general colour is white, with sundry bedaubments of tinsel and paint. A huge paper cocked hat is one favourite headpiece, and every one, among the gentlemen, excepting the captain or leader, and his two or three assistants, is masked. The ladies are represented by young fishermen, who are painted, but not masked. Some of the masks are very grotesque, and the fools or clowns are furnished with thongs and bladders, with which they belabour the exterior mob. Much ingenuity is ob-

\* Pronounced here always *wran*.

servable in the style of the cocked hats, which are surmounted with all sorts of things, feathers in profusion, paper models of ships, etc.

They go to the Government House first, and then round to the inhabitants; and it has been customary to make the captain a present of money for a ball, which is given at the end of the carnival, if it may be so styled.

They perform, at those houses which admit them, a sort of play, in which the unmasked characters only take a part, and which is very long and tiresome after once hearing. It is a dialogue between the captain and a sailor, and commences with Alexander the Great, and continues down to Nelson and Wellington. They are both armed with swords, and a mock fight goes on all the while, till one is supposed to be slain, when the doctor is called in to bring him to life again.

I cannot recollect the doggrell used, but as it is a relic of the days of the Abbot of Unreason and the Lord of Misrule, it is interesting and harmless. I never remember to have seen anything in England (though, to be sure, I have not been much in my native country since my boyhood), resembling it, excepting the now very rare morris-dancers, whom I once saw in perfection near Aylesbury in Buckinghamshire, when a boy, and who almost exactly resembled those described as depicted on painted glass, in an old English mansion, in the notes to Johnson and Steeven's Shakspeare.

The custom of decorating the churches and houses with evergreen, at Christmas, prevails

here also, as well as the palm branch on Palm Sunday. St. Patrick's day is also kept, but the tutelar saints of England and Scotland are not much remembered, excepting perhaps by a public dinner.

One of the prevailing signs of the place, at least in St. John's, is a mighty fondness for flags, and instead of "where holy bells should knoll to church," the periods of the services are usually designated by the warlike accompaniment of a standard, raised on a staff in the yard, on which is emblazoned the mitre or the cross. The very school-hours are pointed out by flags at the school-house door. Every merchant has his flag on his storehouse or wharf, and one would think that the utmost state of active warfare existed, by only looking on the military signal post, which is frequently kept in sharp practice, signaling the highly-important intelligence, that a schooner is passing the harbour—that a ship, (rare however,) a brig, or a schooner, is in sight, or two, or three, or half a dozen; and I have seen the three masts and yards look like a linen-draper's shop, from the quantity of cloth hanging in the wind.

This all appears very childish to a military man, but still it is of utility, as the merchant is at once told that his vessel is in sight a short time before it comes in; and as far as the packet is concerned, it serves to inform the owner, the post-office, and the town in due time. But owing to the long connexion with sea affairs, this has all

been carried to excess. I confess I do not like to see the time-honoured ensign of Britain, that glorious flag which has braved for a thousand years the battle and the breeze, made a common hack of—

“ For, being seldom seen, it cannot stir  
But, like a comet, it is wondered at,”

as Bolingbroke tells Prince Henry respecting royalty.

Dancing to a fiddle is a favourite winter amusement of the fishermen; and, until lately,—when soberness and reflection are coming over the people, like the shadow of a summer cloud, cooling and invigorating,—the number of grog and spirit shops in St. John's were, with the quantity of money squandered in midnight revelry, incredible. The very servants stole out of their beds to enjoy these hurtful amusements, and such was the taste for them that they materially interfered with their duties.

Spruce beer and tea have superseded rum and whisky, and if it were not that wholesome malt liquors are included, there appears nothing to disapprove in the great exertions which the Roman-catholic clergy, who tread in the footsteps of Father Mathew, have made, and are still making, to rescue the ignorant and idle from the baneful and deadly consequences of strong drinks.

Nevertheless, I cannot alter an opinion expressed in a former work on Canada, that these temperance movements are worse than useless when fostered by designing politicians, by people who have an

object in view, and who, under the cloak of evangelism, merely want to render their otherwise obscure names conspicuous, or to serve some professional or private purpose. The spouter upon religious topics at public meetings and the spouter upon temperance are often much alike. Let the clergy do the work; the ministers of the gospel of peace are assuredly the fittest instruments in this moral reform, and it is disgusting to see it paraded, as it was in Canada before 1837, by political and fanatical theorists, whose minds are so narrowed from early education or prejudice, that they cannot permit a fellow Christian to remain in possession of quiet opinions, but, with the Bible in one hand and the sword or the rod in the other, would force him to take heaven by storm, in their own peculiar and dogmatic enterprise. "Every man to his trade" is an old and safe aphorism, and more harm has been done towards ensuring a return to the healthy regimen of our great patriarchal ancestors by these meddlers, than all the alcohol which all the grain of the earth ever yielded. Excess on the one part has met the extreme of excess on the other, and both have joined hands.

In the army, no doubt, it is a most difficult and dangerous experiment to admit of the formation of any extensive social compacts for definite purposes, simply because, by the introduction of a harmless one, others of a nature subversive of discipline may creep in secretly. I should not, therefore, as a military man, countenance "Tem-

perance Societies" being established either in regiments or in distant garrisons; but I can see no harm in permitting the soldier, if he be a Roman Catholic, or a Protestant of any denomination, to take the "Temperance Pledge," provided he obtains it from a clergyman; and I really think that, even in the Church of England, where vows of any kind are not the order of the day, and where every member is presumed to act from simple motives of conscience in adhering to any resolution to abstain from evil, some registry might be permitted for the more uneducated classes, of their names, as desiring to adhere to a life of sobriety.

The Roman-catholic soldier receives the pledge from his priest before the altar, and considers the breach of its conditions a mortal sin. Conscience alone operates upon his fellow Christians, and in most instances is powerful enough, with example of the benefits desired, to check the return to a vice which is perhaps more strongly adherent than any other.

Many men think unless they have received the pledge, (I am now speaking of Protestants,) that mental intentions are not binding. I have an instance of it at hand, and I like to cite facts. The man is not a soldier, he is my groom; and good men-servants in this place, from the paucity of them, are not very easy to obtain, the best remaining in their places, and the others having always the resource of the fisheries or farms. This man, notoriously the greatest drunkard in

the place, and extremely insolent and dangerous when drunk, applied, after he had suffered severe losses in his family, and was steeped to the lips in poverty, for a place to several gentlemen in St. John's, mostly connected with the public service. His character was known to be good otherwise, but he had reduced his bodily health to almost the lowest ebb. Although he had been known for years, and had long lived with one of the oldest and most respectable merchants of the place before he threw himself out of employment, nobody would listen to him, but a gentleman attached to the civil service of the army, who hoped to reform him. With him he stayed but a very short time before drink again overcame him, and when his master told him that a recurrence of the evil would oblige him to turn him away, he merely said that he "was sorry he did not like to see him happy." Again, distress, famine, and misery assailed him, and he applied to another high in office, who knew his character well, and advised him as a last resource to take the pledge, which he gave him half a dollar to effect, the medals costing that sum. He took it, and shortly afterwards, being in want of a good groom, I was advised to try him. I have now had him several months, and the pledge has been faithfully kept.

So much for a motive. Human nature, when uninformed, requires a stimulus; and even those most highly gifted and carefully instructed, have they not their motives, their medals, their stars, crosses, ribands, honours and ranks, pledges of

their high renown, deep knowledge, scientific fame, or of their devotion to their country and Queen, on the ocean, in the study, or on the battle-field, which act with conscience to desire them to march still onward in the applause and approbation of their countrymen and of their own minds? Ambition is always honourable when the motive is good; and the ambition to be a sober and useful member of society is as honourable in the private soldier as that which decorated the breasts of Nelson and Wellington!

The amusements of the higher classes in St. John's are much the same as in other colonies, and as all are engaged either in public or private business, or professional pursuits, their hours of relaxation are usually spent either in dinner parties, for the Newfoundlanders are proverbially hospitable, or in evening assemblages at each other's houses, where quadrilles and dancing keep the younger members of society in pleasant occupation, whilst their elders look on, play at cards, or converse upon the topics of the day. All these parties, with country excursions in sleighs when the snow admits, are carried on during the long winter.

The Government house has usually given the *ton* in dinners and balls; the former during the winter being weekly, and the latter on state or other occasions, with now and then a levee and a state dinner to the superior officials.

Sleigh driving, that delightful method of passing the time in Western Canada, where the snow is

more constantly on the ground, is not here either good of its kind, or of any duration, owing to snow being usually accompanied by strong winds, which sweep it off the roads, or bank it up in immense ridges, whilst, from there being no road tax, no statute labour, nor a sufficiency of horses, the winter roads are of course neglected, and moreover cut up and rendered difficult and dangerous by the catamarans or dog-sledges, which convey wood to the capital for fuel, and in fine weather are met in long strings loaded as high as possible, so that if a sleigh is ascending a hill, and they are coming down with all the velocity of the running dogs, and their own momentum, it requires skilful chariotceering to avoid an accident.

Another source of nuisance to the sleigh driver, is the custom of throwing the snow in the town from the pavement or side walks into the street, which renders the streets, always quite narrow enough in so irregularly laid out a town, still narrower and more difficult; and as St. John's stands upon the slope of hills, going down to the Harbour, far above 120 feet in altitude, many of the lateral streets are exceedingly steep; and these, as well as some of the main approaches, are very frequently occupied by boys, who, seated on a miniature sledge, are practising the "Russian Mountain" from morning to night, when the snow is good or ice has formed. This has occasioned serious accidents, particularly to females walking, who cannot readily get out of the way. It is

capital fun, certainly ; but, like many other things in St. John's, requires a little local legislation.

Sleighting on Quidi Vidi Pond, Twenty Mile Pond, and other small lakes near the capital, is sometimes very good ; but no ice amusements even on these fine sheets of fresh water can long be practised, as a snow storm or a sudden thaw spoils the ice for skating, ball-playing, etc.

In summer, about the end of August, the young men get up a regatta, on Quidi Vidi Pond, for oared boats, and some very spirited matches take place ; at which time, the adjacent meadow for three days is covered with booths, and looks like an English fair, excepting that every booth has its flag.

Shooting, hunting, fishing, and also boating in the harbour, form other recreations ; but the shooting is confined to snipe and a very few curlews, with ptarmigan near the capital ; and even for these, long and toilsome marches must be made. The fishing is in the streams and ponds, and affords chiefly two or three kinds of trout, and very seldom indeed a salmon.

Hunting is confined to the wolf and hare, in winter, and these are both rare, and usually followed only with duck-shooting by the country people living in the woods, or at a distance from St. John's.

I have never seen a wild duck in any pond within five miles of the town ; however lonely it may be in the woods, still they are plentiful in the island, and are frequently brought to the

door, beginning first to appear in the latter end of March. Hares are of enormous size, as compared to the animal so well known at home, but they are very scarce near the settlements, and sell at St. John's for two dollars, or ten shillings.

Deer, which are very numerous in Newfoundland, have also abandoned the vicinage of large towns, and are not often brought to market. The venison is dear, but excellent in the season.

Ptarmigan, or partridges as they are called, are in abundance. I have put up, in walking without a dog, within a mile and a half of St. John's, six, five, three, or one at a time, on the approach of winter; but they never remain long in the same place, and, when not very sore pressed by hunger, will almost suffer themselves to be trodden upon amongst the low berry-bushes before they rise. They prefer the bare tops of hills, and stony, bare places near streams, where they can readily obtain their food, which appears to be berries and buds of the low, recumbent, or stunted plants of the cranberry and whortleberry kinds.

These fine birds are very like Scotch grouse, but there appears to be some doubt about their being a distinct species; and a gentleman who has taken some pains to ascertain it, thinks that there is very little specific difference between the red grouse, gorcock, or moorcock, of Bewick, (*tetrao Scoticus*,) and those of Newfoundland, although *tetrao lagopus*, or white grouse, has always hitherto been said to be the arctic or northern

ptarmigan. Both turn white in winter, and the one in question has a rufous, parti-coloured, brown plumage, liberally mixed with white in summer.

A cock bird, shot on the 21st of January, had nearly white plumage, and weighed twenty-eight ounces. A brace of birds, shot on the 23rd of December, weighed three pounds and a quarter. Three cocks and a hen, shot near Trepassey on the 10th of May, weighed respectively twenty-two and a half, twenty-three and a half, and twenty-four and a half ounces, and the hen weighed twenty-two—altogether making five pounds, thirteen ounces and a half.

Notwithstanding, however, their being plentifully scattered along the inhabited shores, these birds sell for half-a-dollar, or two shillings and sixpence a brace.

Occasionally, a boat is manned by amateurs, and taken outside of the harbour, for the purpose of catching flatfish or cod; and I believe I have now enumerated most of the attractive recreations of St. John's and other towns.

The want of beach for sea-bathing is very sensibly felt by those who are accustomed to that source of health and enjoyment; and unless a stranger is fond of walking in the woods and across the country, and musing, as he goes, on man and nature, he soon gets tired of the monotonous drives and rides along the few roads, which are rarely pleasantly practicable for equestrian exercise in summer, to a greater extent than ten

miles in two directions, or for a carriage for more than that distance on one alone. A walk along the frowning and beetling margin of the ocean, from Outer Cove to Torbay, is one of the best relaxations; for there the sea in all its grandeur incessantly wages war with the land, and gains great and permanent victories amongst the slate cliffs. There, too, late in summer, you sometimes see the solitary and splendid iceberg at a distance, looking like a crystal monument of nature, warning us that the season is short ere winter again is to wrap the land and water in its mantle of white. There you may see, now and then, the whale and the porpoise gambolling; and there man, busy man, is toiling on the broad waters, in a boat reduced by distance to a speck, for the means of supporting his existence, whilst the angry waves climbing up and bellowing on the precipices under your feet, give ample evidence that his occupation is precarious.

Amongst the resources of mental indulgence, how useful to the rising generation of Newfoundland would it not be, if some public journal were to devote its pages to explain and develop the properties of nature, in this portion of Transatlantic Britain. There is an ample field for instruction.

It will scarcely be believed that so small a population as that of St. John's and its neighbourhood, about 26,000, supports seven newspapers, where the readers hitherto have not been numerous, and where the chief source of return-

ing profits for the outlay in press, paper, types, and labour arise from mercantile advertisements. There are also two in Conception Bay.

The reason has been obvious; there is no tax upon them; and the state of party and religious feeling, since the opening of the first assembly of the people for legislatorial purposes, has necessarily given existence to several.

The blessing of education, when it is fully developed in Newfoundland, the increasing desire for useful information, the formation of useful literary and scientific societies, the opening of roads, and the expansion of the population by rendering it no longer confined in the narrow limits of a small capital, will doubtless enlarge the sphere of utility of these journals. And whenever steam communication shall be firmly fixed, the bridge across the Atlantic will open out new views, new feelings, and new connexions.

Newfoundland, possessing an area as large nearly as England, a population already respectable in amount, and constantly increasing, deserves to be better known and more attended to by the mother country. It has hitherto been looked upon, by those who were unconnected with it, as a sort of Cimmerian region, where fogs and darkness prevailed, and where the few people who were adventurous or hardy enough to become denizens were in as deep a moral gloom. The climate is certainly severe in winter, from the great length of that season, but it is then very seldom indeed foggy; and it is always healthy

except in February, when colds and catarrhal affections prevail, which, however, yield to care and attention. It is not the climate for a very delicate European to encounter; and that most unpleasant affection, early dental decay, is nearly as bad as in Canada. I never had the tooth-ache but once in my life until this year; and I observe that it is confined neither to age, sex, nor habit of living, being principally situated in the molar teeth, in both children and adults.

Thus the chief drawbacks to comfort arise from the absence of internal resources, the length of time elapsing before communication in the winter can be had with England or the continent of America, the former discouragement of agriculture, and the great struggle between the religious and political sections of the community.

For many years before this island had the control of its own affairs, union existed amongst all classes and all professions; and it is said, by the oldest residents, and by officers formerly stationed there, that there was very little, if any, political or religious difference, the various sects meeting in society, and all attending to the main business of their lives—the fishery, and the trade dependent thereon.

Since that period, a new and very unhappy state of things has arisen, and the colony has been torn by religious and political discussion, which even divides that great division of the people, the Roman Catholics, as strongly as it operates on the other hand.

But this disunion between the members of that church, it is apprehended, will not be more than temporary, and whenever the government shall put forth its strength, and assert its power to be untrammelled and impartial, much of the acerbity which now prevails will cease.

The dispute respecting the alleged interference at the elections by the Roman-catholic clergy, the extensive suffrage, and the small stake which the members of the Provincial Parliament are required to possess, are all subjects of high local interest; but as this work does not profess to be a mere political one, they will not bear more handling here than they have already received, as no doubt the attention of the home government has been fully awakened to all these subjects.

I believe that a prudent man will soon see that more may be effected to ameliorate existing differences by promoting agriculture, education, and internal resources, roads, and steam-vessels, and thus encouraging a hardy useful population, which will not then be placed, during every severe winter or bad season of fishery, in the jeopardy and dread of starvation, than by any coercive means whatever, by any party or by any persons.

The steam communication with England is, above all, necessary, and then the promotion of the capabilities of the island by an extensive, well-conducted exploration of the interior, with a view of extending its resources; and though last, not least, the gradual opening of roads to all the dis-

tant settlements. Facts are stubborn and sturdy things to deal with, and it has been sufficiently seen by competent persons, and proved by experiment, that even in the very worst sections of the island, the eastern and southern coasts, the land is capable of yielding the necessaries of life, and of becoming fit to rear any quantity of stock—in fact, that it is naturally a grazing country.\*

Open, then, the roads to the distant settlements, and set the inhabitant of the woods and iron-bound shores free from the moral and intellectual bondage he now labours under, for want, in many places, of the very rudiments of religious, and of the commonest education.

The extent of the grievous calamity they endure and suffer in this respect may be gathered in England at a glance, from the most cursory perusal of the Report of the Newfoundland and British North American School Society, or from that of the Colonial Church Society, wherein it will be seen, year by year, that the New Zealand

\* M'Gregor, as late as 1832, says that, notwithstanding the assumed sterility of Newfoundland, it then afforded room for 12,000 British emigrant families on its sea-board, and he recommends settlers accustomed to sea shores, from Shetland, Orkney, the Hebrides, the Isle of Man, the coasts of Wales, Cornwall, and the west and south of Ireland, to be the fit pioneers.—p. 454, vol. ii.

The Edinburgh Cabinet Library, 1839, vols. ii. and iii., although adopting the generally-received but erroneous principle that Newfoundland is barren, yet has been willing to grant that its west coast is capable of holding a large emigration, when once it has been explored.

savages, and the painted aborigines of America, who reside in the almost unknown regions of the western forests, have had even better chances of enlightening their minds than these poor British fishermen, whose poverty, also, from the total want of internal resources, is so lamentable, that in winter, in places where able schoolmasters have been appointed, they have been unable to receive instruction, for want of fit and commonly decent clothes to appear in, and from the absolute necessity of gathering in scantily obtained fuel to keep the vital spark within their hard-worked and toil-worn bodies.\*

These are no fancied pictures; they are paintings of real life, now obscured by the dust of neglect, but which may be restored and brightened by the judicious application and encouragement of the great agricultural and mineral resources of the island, and by giving the legislative bodies something else to think about than constant and wearying collisions.

\* It is useless and cruel to argue, that these men could not profitably conjoin agriculture and the fishery. See what M'Gregor says, vol. ii. page 248, of the American fishermen who have to travel from home to the banks, &c. There a family of farmers build a schooner, and in the intervals between sowing-time and harvest, go to the fishery, procure a cargo, sell it, gather in the fruits of the earth, and again go abroad to fish for another supply for their own family use, which they merely salt without drying. Cannot our men, who fish on their own shores, do more; and is not agriculture forcing its way in every large harbour in Newfoundland? The motto of the Natives' Society of Newfoundland should be, "The Fisheries and Agriculture."

But, beyond all, I think the settlement of the western coast, and the probability of a new capital arising either in St. George's or some of the adjoining bays, which would supply the eastern city and shores with coal, iron, building stone, bricks, marble, and timber for house or ship building, and perhaps also with grain and ordinary fruits, would tend more to raise the dormant interest of the mother country, and give the people of St. John's new energies, than anything else that could be attempted.

Colonize the western shores, and Newfoundland will then have several other important interests besides the mere shore fishery; and the conjunction will not only develop all her vast resources, but will open out a new and virgin field for commercial enterprise; and the British merchant will soon prove, as he has proved everywhere else under the glorious flag of his fatherland, that mere local politics are but as shadows, when compared with the power and pre-eminence of that country of which all the colonies are vital members, of which every subject is a son, who can proudly assert, "I, too, am a Briton," "I am a Canadian," "I am a Newfoundlander," and "I love my natal soil beyond every other, but I will never consent to be the less a Briton." Such are the feelings of every descendant of the Englishman, the Scotchman, and the Irishman, in every colony of that monarchy on which the light of day never ceases to shine. There may be petty internal differences in many provinces of the

mighty empire, but there must arise some hitherto undeveloped change before that universal feeling is even partially weakened. It was gloriously displayed in Canada in 1837, and so it would, under similar circumstances, in any other colony whereon a foreign foot presumed to march in warlike array. The lion is noble, and not easily roused ; but when he once shakes his mane and his eyes glare, it is not safe to tamper with his wrath.

## PART V.

### POLITICAL ECONOMY.

#### CHAPTER XIII.

##### THE FISHERIES, TRADE, SHIPPING, AND REVENUE.

THE trade of Newfoundland consists, as it is well known, of fish and oil as its staple commodities, and was originally established to supply the world with those absolute necessities, and continued by Great Britain in order to create a hardy race of seamen, to support that trade and to command the sovereignty of the seas.

With these views, for many years all attempts to settle and improve the island were discountenanced and discouraged to a painful degree. But when European policy became more enlightened, and it was found impossible for a civilized government to desolate a fair country, merely because the interests of trade required the home merchant to retain an absolute command and control over the fishers of the distant deep—when it was clearly seen that a resident population close

to the fishery was better adapted to its success than men who had twice to cross two thousand miles of ocean—and when it was found impracticable longer to resist the claims of other nations to participate in the treasures of that ocean—then, and not till then, this barbarous and rigid system began gradually to yield to reason, and to relax its offensive rigours towards the unhappy settler,—who was soon afterwards permitted to dwell in safety on the spot he had selected, and could no longer have his miserable hut burned about his ears, and his family turned out to wander for protection to the ship which was appointed to carry them off.

The usual generosity of British councils, as soon as the error was discovered, made amends for its adoption, and for many years the situation of the colonists in Newfoundland has been gradually improving, and nothing retarded it but the lurking remains of the system, which time alone could cure. It is but the other day that the older notions were finally exploded, and that instead of the maxim that to render Newfoundland habitable would draw off the attention of the labouring poor from the only avocation they can follow with any chance of profit, and that to discourage agriculture, the formation of roads, settlements, and farming, as much as possible, would ensure the labour of the unlettered and rude fisherman — instead of continuing this ancient mercantile maxim, the government adopted the course of placing Newfoundland on a level with

the other Transatlantic colonies; and having granted it a legislature of its own, time has now so softened the evil, that roads have been opened, a shore fishery alone is carried on to an extent never contemplated, agriculture has received protection, and the most intelligent and respectable of the resident merchants have formed themselves into a body for its promotion.

The fishery may therefore now be looked upon as a free trade, still clogged a little, from some of its tackle having the rust of ages on it; but bidding fair, not only to increase rapidly, but to set defiance to competition, notwithstanding the banks of Newfoundland are covered by foreign, instead of by British fishing ships. The little shore boat, with its simple apparatus, has settled the question already, as to whether a native and resident population cannot carry on the cod-fishery with less expenditure and more success than vessels from a distance, tossing and tumbling on the foggy and uneasy swells of the great banks.

The system upon which the fish and oil trade of Newfoundland is carried on, is not generally understood at home; and I shall therefore state, that, as in the management of absentee property in Ireland, this island has another feature approximating its character with that of the green ocean gem, in addition to those already mentioned, for here also there are usually three distinct classes employed upon one mode of obtaining the wherewithal.

First, the British merchant, or owner, residing most commonly in Britain, but in some cases remaining in the country till he has amassed a fortune, and more rarely remaining altogether there.

Next, the middle-man or planter, as he is most absurdly called,—probably from all the original English settlements in America having received the official designation of plantations; but the Newfoundland planter has had in reality as little to do with cultivating the soil as an Esquimaux.

Thirdly, the working-bee, or fisherman.

The merchant finds the ship or vessel, the nets, and the provisions, in fact, the means of carrying on the fishery, which he supplies to the planter. In some few cases the planter owns the vessel.

The planter agrees with his crews, and superintends the toil of catching and curing.

The merchant, whose money alone causes the machinery to act, of course takes due care of himself; the planter is equally unforgetful of number one, and as few of the fishermen can yet write or read, their settlements may end either to their advantage or loss, according to the honesty of the middle-man, who very frequently has not much notion of the alphabet, or of the more mystic art of notation; and, to shew the difficulty of his position in society, it is notorious that very few planters realize profits of consequence.

The poor fisherman has therefore to look for his wages to as poor a middle-man, and the consequence has been, that the courts of justice here,

since the cat-o'-nine-tails settled disputes, have been constantly embroiled with bitter suits between the servant and his immediate employer; whilst the ignorant fisherman sometimes takes the law into his own hands, and detains the fish and oil till his wages are paid, or refuses to work well, and thus punishes himself, instead of his wealthy master.\*

The great excitement this creates may be surmised from observing that a number of lawyers find very respectable incomes from suits principally relating to mercantile transactions only, and that

\* The merchant is very safe; because the law or custom of lien secures him who furnishes the middle-man, or fisherman, with supplies, a prior claim for reimbursement, on any property these men may possess, during the fishing season only; and, therefore, if the fishery fails, the merchant must, in his defence, resort at its conclusion to the harsh method of seizure, in order to prevent the next year's supplier from stepping into his shoes.

In all matters regarding island property, also, a debt contracted in England can be recovered here by plea before the Supreme Court; and the property of insolvents in Newfoundland is divided as follows:—First, All wages due to seamen, fishermen, and servants, employed during the current fishing season, at twenty shillings in the pound; then all debts for supplies during that season, at twenty shillings in the pound—a preference being given to claims within two years; after which, come the other creditors rateably; and a certificate of bankruptcy granted with the consent of one-half of the creditors, *ad valorem*, is a final bar to all suits in the island.

These laws appear to an uninterested observer, to require very considerable revision, as they operate as a check upon industry.

it was to it remotely, that one chief justice owed his removal from the bench, which his successor occupied soon after in the selfsame dilemma—a dilemma most difficult to manage, and requiring infinite patience, knowledge and inflexible determination, to decide upon, in a place where the press on both sides is equally active.

It will naturally be asked, what is the best way of settling this vexed question, the law of lien—or, in other words, the right which ancient custom has conceded of the claim on the part of the fishermen over the produce of his toil for wages; and to meet this question, without the acumen and research of an acute and practised wearer of the coif, would seem very arrogant and absurd. But it is one of great moment in the colony; and therefore, having reconnoitred it in the military mode, and having sent out my serjeants to take up the points, I shall venture an opinion, particularly as, very fortunately in this little capital, there is neither the formidable array, nor the preponderating and unanswerable wisdom of the twelve judges to tremble at.

The merchant, who depends on his capital for his existence as much as the planter and fisherman do upon their toil for theirs, cannot, in common justice, be expected to sacrifice his interests. If the adventure fails, he loses enough in all conscience; and if the planter to whom he consigns the care of his interests becomes a bankrupt, and unable to pay him his advances, can he also be expected to remunerate that man's

servant? Common law and equity (why equity is distinct from law, as a soldier I never could understand, but no doubt there are reasons plenty as blackberries for it) both say no.

Then, is the servant, after having toiled all day and caught no fish, to return to the planter who engaged him, and, finding the adventure a failure altogether, to whistle for his hard-earned wages? Law and equity, those step-sons of justice, both say no.

The old custom gave the servant the right of lien or claim on whatever he could lay hold of out of the produce of his toil; but this was unjust to the merchant, the man who really owned it, and had already paid for it, and who had naturally a prior right.

Why does he employ a middle-man, or planter? Because it is impossible in so scattered a population, with such amazing extent of fishing bank and shore, that he whose establishment is in St. John's, or in one of the out-harbours or settlements, could attend to the large import and export trade upon which he subsists, and at the same time employ himself or his clerks on a fish stage in twenty different places, or in perhaps a hundred boats at sea. He therefore uses at his need the planter, and as the fisherman must supply himself from his warehouses with winter food, and with clothing, he retains both planter and fisherman as his constant clients; and as, in almost all the American colonies, and throughout the

United States, indeed in all new countries, labour is rewarded in kind, and not in money, the system became one of truck or barter. I give you the labour of my hands, for the food and clothing I require; that is the real bargain between the merchant and the fisherman.

No later than a few days ago, (10th March, 1842,) a fresh instance of the demands of the labourers, of the working-bees, took place, which formerly neither would have been attempted, nor would have ended in serious riot. The fishermen collected in the latter end of February, from all the surrounding settlements, to prepare for the annual visit to the ice in quest of seals. The bargain here was on the same principle—one-half the profit to the merchant, or owner, who found and fitted the ship, the other half to the crew. The merchant by long custom, besides the benefits derived from extra stores or clothing, had always deducted a certain varying sum for berth-money to the hands, excepting one or two able marksmen, who were charged less or went free, for the privilege of embarking on the most hazardous and uncertain adventure which the spirit of commerce leads men to undertake.

The sealers had long been dissatisfied with this charge, and therefore met together in St. John's with banners and a drum, and held a consultation, which ended in a refusal to embark unless the merchant-owners lowered the berth-money, which they had this year raised to three pounds and three pounds ten shillings, currency, for the

different classes, with one pound for the bow or chief gunner, who had hitherto gone free. Some of them committed a breach of the peace, which fortunately was trivial, and they were sentenced to a short imprisonment; but the body holding out a long time, a sort of compromise was effected, and the berth-money was lowered to two pounds, and one pound ten shillings, and the bow gunner, as before, free.

These combinations and assemblages of any classes for such purposes are always unlawful and dangerous, and should be carefully avoided, by substituting a scale of wages and contracts, about which there could be little doubt or reasoning.

But to pay the sealers, or the same men as cod-fishers, regular wages, would at present be impracticable, and would doubtless be a losing speculation, as they would not have the same interest to work; but might it not be so modified, that a scale of remuneration should be adopted, so that instead of a middle-man or planter, the merchant, or his factor or agent, should pay direct to the servant, who, by-the-bye, is always regularly bound in writing for the voyage, trip, or season, whilst the merchant is not, but the middle-man or planter is.

It requires, of course, no small foresight to guard against trickery from idleness, dissipation, or improper delivery or use of the fish, in so scattered and extensive a concern as that of a Newfoundland and Labrador shore fishery; but

still the very objectionable plan of a middle-man, who is more frequently a loser than a gainer, would be better unemployed, and I cannot help thinking that the merchant would benefit, by taking the affair altogether in his own hands. He is generally insured, and therefore less liable to risk, than the poor planter.

But as before observed, having neither legal nor mercantile acumen or knowledge, I can only propose that the best way of curing this evil, would be to make the poor fisherman more independent, as in the Bay of Chaleurs, by granting him land, which his family might cultivate whilst he was at sea, and thus lay in a supply of winter provision of potatoes and grain, which he must now frequently owe altogether to the merchant, if he has none of his own rearing, and thus giving him a real interest in the country, as well as in the fishery.

It is argued, on the other hand, that if the fishermen became more independent, he would at once throw off the merchant's yoke, and fish for himself. He cannot do so for years to come, at least near the principal harbours now used. Nature has denied these places favourable beaches for drying the fish, and thus expensive establishments of curing houses, stages, and ways have to be kept up, which it is vain for the poorer fishermen to contemplate, without a dollar of capital, whilst the woods are receding yearly from the vicinity of the settlements, and it will soon be impossible, without roads, to obtain the poles

and brushwood necessary for constructing drying stages.

It is a very singular fact, but no less true than singular, that wherever riches are stored by nature, the gatherers are poor. In the mines of Peru and Mexico, and in the ocean mines of Newfoundland, teeming with inexhaustible, and much greater wealth, the gatherers are equally poor. It would appear, that it requires wealth to obtain wealth; and that in all states of society, there must be the humble and working-bee, to receive only a modicum of that honey which the proprietor and constructor of the hive claims.

But even should the fisherman attain comparative independence by his own industry, the merchant cannot suffer eventually, as the cured fish must be brought to him to send on its voyage; and it was to me a most convincing proof that the trade of Newfoundland would be immensely benefited by the improved condition of the fishermen, when I observed in Gaspé Bay, in Canada, that industrious fishermen there had risen from that obscure situation to comparative wealth and influence, solely by their own exertions. There they had land which supplied their wants, their families with food, and there, in a climate more rigorous, and not a whit better soil, the liberal system of the Jersey merchant favoured the industry of the employed.

If ever the reader should visit the Bay of Chaleur, let him go into any of the Irish or Jerseymen's villages, and he will see the proof.

Let him walk from Janorin's establishment at the Grand Grève to Maitre Pierre Simon's, at Indian Cove or the Lead Rocks, and there he will at one end see the agents of a first class fishing merchant surrounded by every comfort and necessary for existence, and for the prosecution of the trade of their principals; and having passed the neat white-washed dwellings of the fishermen, he may sit himself down and smoke the pipe of peace with Maitre Pierre, if he be still alive, for he was no youth when I conversed with him, and find a sensible worthy man, who is well to do in the world from his early industry with the cod-hook and the fishing-net.\*

In short, that the greater the population of Newfoundland as a British colony, the greater will be the extent of settled shore,—is as clear as the solution of the fourth proposition of Euclid, and no such distant nations as the French and the Spaniards, who now rival and beat us in the bank fishery—no, not even the Americans—could occupy those banks on such easy and favourable terms as a people could living close aboard of them. I look to the extension of agriculture in Newfoundland as a primary means of restoring the fishery trade to Great Britain—a trade which has been so depreciated of late years, owing to the length of the peace, and other concurrent causes.

\* Look even to the American Bank fisher, who is usually a small farmer, and yet contrives, whilst his crop is growing, and after harvest, to make two long and profitable voyages.

It cannot form a subject of great disquisition or of deep research to point out the injury which the treaties of Utrecht and Ghent have inflicted upon the maritime power of Great Britain, or the grand blow which her commerce received in the staple trade of Newfoundland being thrown open to competition.

The original error was that gross one of making the island resemble a huge ship anchored on the banks, but removable at pleasure—or, in other words, the unmatchable obstacles which were originally thrown in the way of the industrious colonists, whose dwellings were actually thrown down or burnt, and themselves and families forcibly removed, wherever they attempted to settle; whilst that admirable discipline which has made the British navy so paramount, was, by an error in judgment, deemed fitting for a mercantile speculation.

Had Newfoundland possessed a vigorous maritime population at the close of the last general war, sufficiently numerous to have set their invaders at defiance, both in skill and means, we should not now see the fishery on the banks employing only a dozen or so of small island or British vessels, where a thousand formerly rode in triumph. Now the voyager passes through a forest of French, Spanish, and American vessels there, but he in vain looks for the time-honoured flag of England. The foreigners have literally driven us ashore, and thus undersell us in the catholic countries in every part of the world,

which we formerly supplied, whilst the French add the inducement of bounties, and have made Newfoundland the "Nursery of their Seamen!"\*

Formerly, the island, in return for the outlay of the mother country, took all its imports from her, her manufactured goods, her home and colonial produce—in short, everything except a few trifling luxuries; and in return for these benefits, valued in the most palmy state of Newfoundland at no less a sum than a million and a half sterling, she sent Britain two millions.

Now, Newfoundland imports much of her subsistence from Hamburgh and from Boston, or New York; whilst the Americans, with their right of fishing on the banks, have also nearly a fourth of the island coast allotted to them, to dry the fish caught on that coast, monopolize the herring fishery off the Magdalen Islands in our own dominion, or, as they would style it, in our own waters, intrude into the great salmon rivers of Labrador, kill our seals, and with their national carelessness about rights, drive our unprotected fishermen there from their own grounds.

The French occupy more than half the island shores, engross the grand bank, and laugh us to scorn. Once a year, or thereabouts, a little schooner armed to the teeth, displays the national flag in our harbour of St. John's, to see how things

\* Still, such is the seaman nature of Britons, there are not fewer than ten thousand real and prime sailors in the cod and seal fishery of Newfoundland and Labrador.

are getting on with us, and an active, jealous guard is kept up by similarly armed vessels, with an occasional frigate, over the coast they occupy; and it was even judged most judicious to send a son of the king of France, in the *Belle Poule*, to visit the stations.

The British protecting flag waves, it is true, around the island, once or twice a year, and, on the Labrador shore, what the navy call somewhat naively “jackass frigates;”—but to keep up a constant supervision of the fisheries, and prevent encroachments on them effectually, schooners appear to answer best, as they can approach the shores, and make every small harbour with ease.

The Gulf of St. Lawrence is covered every summer and autumn by American and French fishing sloops or schooners; the herring-ground of the Magdalen Islands is invaded and taken forcible possession of; and the salmon fisheries of the Labrador are scarcely our own;—whilst that most abundant mine of the better and smaller species of cod, along the west coast and towards the Bay of Chaleur, is entirely abandoned to foreigners.

Everywhere complaints of this interference are rife; the Magdalen islanders are driven from their own ground, and our whale fishers and sealers, by and by, will have neither whales nor seals to catch.

This state of things is very serious. The high bounties still given by the French government for Newfoundland fish caught and exported by French fishermen; the vicinity of the United

States to these fisheries, and the absolute claim which the French pretend to make to the northern and eastern coasts of the island, can scarcely, at present, be contended against by the British merchant.

The Chamber of Commerce at St. John's sent a vessel to the French shore at one of the principal stations, (Croque,) in 1830, to try the question of British concurrent right of fishery and drying; but it was ordered off, and it was not deemed necessary to support the attempt.

I do not exaggerate when I assert that Great Britain loses a revenue of about a million annually, by her generosity, and the oversight of former legislators.\* In fact, her fishermen catch only about one-third of the cod exported by them, by France, and by the United States. Moreover, she loses, for want of an adequate attention to the rearing of a hardy maritime population in

\* As detailed facts are very excellently given in Montgomery Martyn's "British Colonies," I shall not tire the reader with long and intricate details from the French Minister of Marine's Exposé, or the American Public Statements. It is sufficient to state that, so long ago as 1829, France employed nearly three hundred vessels, ships of from one to two hundred tons burthen, with from forty to one hundred and twenty men each, or twenty-five thousand well-disciplined sea-going fishermen. Now she has thirty thousand such sailors, principally from the ports of St. Maloes, Bourdeaux, Brest, and Marscilles; and even small shallops cross the Atlantic to St. Pierre. Some make two voyages to the banks, and carry to France their fish to be cured. Others only one, and cure at St. Pierre, whilst, during the time of salting and drying, the major part of the crew

Newfoundland, all that France gains by pursuing so wise a course. It was but last year that a fine French frigate touched at St. Pierre, upon the first rumour of continental difficulties, and carried off a cargo of excellent sea conscripts to man other vessels.

The importance of the trade of Newfoundland to Britain, even in its present depreciated condition, is beyond the commonly-received ideas of it; and to shew its real value, it will be necessary to beg the reader to peruse a greater amount of details than we had at first intended.

By examination of public documents connected therewith, it is clear beyond a doubt that, in a year just gone past, upwards of a thousand sail of good-sized vessels entered, and upwards of nine hundred and fifty left, the harbours and ports of Newfoundland, without taking into consideration the innumerable schooners and small craft engaged in the actual fisheries.

are employed along shore fishing in boats; others cure at Croque, &c. They export one-third of all the cod caught at Newfoundland.

The Americans export annually from four hundred to five hundred quintals, or half of the total of our catch in our own seas, whilst their home consumption trebles that amount. In 1832, they had from one thousand to fifteen hundred schooners of from ninety to one hundred tons, and thirty thousand men employed. Their first voyage is usually to the Banks, which they visit two or three times in the year; the second to Newfoundland and Labrador; some entirely along these coasts; and they interfere with our net fisheries, notwithstanding the treaties, which, in remote places, deprives our poor settlers of every advantage.

*The shipping entered inwards, 1840.*

	No.	Tonnage.	Men.
Great Britain - - -	209	26,031	6802
British Colonies - - -	382	29,657	
United States - - -	110	13,632	
Foreign - - - - -	304	42,861	
Total - - - - -	1005	112,181	6802

*The shipping entered outwards, 1840.*

	No.	Tonnage.	Men.
Great Britain - - -	179	20,648	6581
British Colonies - - -	486	50,823	
United States - - -	48	3,716	
Foreign - - - - -	239	29,798	
Total - - - - -	952	106,986	6581

Now, these vessels carry out the fish and oil, and bring manufactured goods, wines, salt, and provisions chiefly. But, independent of all this, Newfoundland is becoming a ship-building country, as the north-eastern bays, and the western coast, are found to supply excellent timber. A fine brig was launched in February 1842, built almost wholly of Newfoundland larch; and the number of vessels constructed in the island would be very great, if it were not that colonial-built ships are at a heavy discount on Lloyd's list,—which, in reference to this growing province, should be amended, as the larch, or juniper, is a most durable and excellent wood; and the pine produced, from its slow growth, is also excellent for masting and yards. But this is a question so ex-

clusively mercantile that it must be left in those hands so well adapted to manage it, and to place the colonial-built ships on their proper level.

In 1840, thirty-one brigs and schooners were built in Newfoundland; their tonnage amounting to 1659, and varying from about 130 tons, new measure, to 70 or 80.

Besides the annual mercantile navy which quitted and entered the ports of this important island in 1840, the port of St. John's alone sent out, in March, seventy-five brigs and schooners to the ice, with a tonnage of 6190, and 2058 men, which, however, is much less than the average of the ten preceding years. I think this year, 1842, the sealers from St. John's alone exceeded eighty; but they were no sooner clear of the land than they met with the most furious snow-storm perhaps ever known at such a season, and which, commencing early on the morning of the 12th of March, lasted until the morning of the 13th, with the wind at N.N.E., or on the north shore, by which many accidents must have occurred. Notwithstanding the extreme violence of this storm, the thermometer seldom sank during its continuance lower than 20°, or twelve degrees below freezing; and the Halifax sailing packet made her voyage to St. John's in five days, arriving a day and night after it ceased, so that she could not have encountered its fury, which was probably spent upon the land; or else she must have been in that part of the circle of ro-

tation, if circle of rotation there be, where she had less of its force to favour her.

Without fatiguing the reader, however, with details, we shall briefly state that Newfoundland employs annually fifteen hundred sail of merchantmen, conveying 140,000 tons of produce, employing more than thirty thousand sailors; and all, with few exceptions, fitted out by British capital.\* These vessels convey the staple to Great Britain, Guernsey, and Jersey, the West Indies, British North America, to the United States of America, to foreign Europe, to Madeira, the Azores, Brazil, Gibraltar, the Mediterranean, etc.

\* By an accurate return in 1832, we can estimate the direction and amount of the ships and tonnage for most years. In 1832, including the Labrador fishery and the coasting, the vessels employed in fishing were 1506 ;

Of which,

On the Banks of Newfoundland	-	-	15	British.
On Labrador coast	-	-	5	do.
From British colonies in North America			285	
From British West Indies	-	-	45	
British bottoms from Foreign America			61	
Island registered vessels catching seals			407	
Coasting and Labrador	-	-	274	
British and Foreign, from Europe	-		414	
			<hr/>	
			1506	

These measured 13,285 tons, and employed 33,380 men.

The fishery exported—

707,382 quintals of cod-fish.

3,302½ tierces of salmon.

3,186 barrels of herrings.

And of seal oil made 5,933½ tuns.

The preponderance of tonnage usually is for British North America, next for Great Britain, then for the British West Indies, then the United States of America; after which comes Guernsey, Jersey, Gibraltar, Madeira, Azores, the Brazils, foreign West Indies.

A large proportion of tonnage is registered in the colony, and many of the smaller class of vessels and traders have been built on the east coast. These are usually brig-rigged, and average from 120 to 150 tons.

Cod, mackerel, herrings. capelin, cods' tongues and sounds, salmon, train-oil, seal-oil, seal-skins, some little peltry, with staves, constitute the chief items of export. A few cranberries, or whortleberries, are sent to England; and if the population were less engaged in the fisheries, and more extended, this might be made profitable, the country abounding with berries which make excellent preserves and keep long without much care or trouble.

Much of the exported wet and dry cod-fish is caught near the island; and Conception Bay, it is said, bears away the palm of superior industry in this branch, the different districts being classed perhaps as follows, according to their advancement in the fishery, by their own resources in island boats and vessels:—

Conception Bay,  
St. John's District,  
Fogo and Twilingate,

Trinity Bay,  
Ferryland,  
Burin and Mortier,  
Placentia,  
Fortune Bay,  
Bonavista and Greenspond,  
Trepassy and St. Mary's ;

whilst St. John's, of course, exceeds all these together in the number of her vessels loading for foreign ports in British bottoms.

I think the average number of quintals of cod-fish exported in each year may be safely stated at 1,000,000.

The number of boats employed during the season, in catching, is somewhere about 4500. The number of men engaged in the British fishery each year never less than 30,000 sailors, with 10,000 boatmen and curers.

Few of these go to the banks, which are now chiefly occupied by French and Spanish fishermen, whilst the Labrador trade does not occupy very much of the tonnage, but the chief part of the seal-skins, the salmon, and furs, comes from that country, the fur-hunters in Newfoundland being most on the north-east coast about Hall's Bay, and trapping over the land to George's Pond, in the ancient Red Indian hunting-grounds. The Micmac Indians on the south and western shores also penetrate the interior for this purpose, but it would be a difficult task to find the amount of peltry exported, as no doubt much of it goes to

France, as we have no custom-house agents on their shore.\*

The agricultural exports are very limited, as we have already stated, and that of the seal-skins and seal-oil considerable; half a million of these skins and 12,500 tons of oil have been shipped in one season.

The whale fishery is not yet of much note. Some few merchants in St. John's annually send a ship or two to the south shore, or to the Gulf; and the great house of Newman and Company keep an establishment at Harbour Britain, where they

\* The relative importance of the great harbours may be gathered, as to their vessels, as follows, from the four returns preceding 1833, exclusively of those entered and cleared at Labrador:—

St. John's, entered and cleared vessels	-	455
Harbour Grace, &c.	- - - -	105
Burin - - - -	- - - -	45
Trinity Bay	- - - -	37
Fortune Bay	- - - -	34
Twilingate and Fogo, &c.	- - - -	30
Ferryland - - -	- - - -	25
Placentia - - -	- - - -	10
St. Lawrence	- - - -	9
Bay of Bulls	- - - -	3

Of these vessels— 753

298	To Great Britain.
193	Foreign Europe, and Brazils.
182	British America.
72	West Indies.
8	United States.

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carry on this fishery to some extent, the kind pursued being chiefly the fin-backed whale.

The value of all these articles of commerce has been variously stated, and may be put down at about a million and a half of sterling money. It was once as high as two millions, and the cod fishery is increasing rapidly.

The imports were once valued at a million and a half, but do not now exceed a million. They are—British manufactured goods, British colonial produce, Irish provisions, American provisions and flour, Hamburgh provisions, and provisions from the North American colonies, with salt from Spain, wines from Portugal and Spain, fruit from the Azores and West Indies, furniture from Great Britain, the British colonies, and Hamburg; limestone for making lime, from Ireland and Spain, as ballast, building-stone from Nova Scotia and Ireland, bricks from England and Hamburg, etc., with implements for the fisheries, and Irish porter.

In 1840,—it is better to select the last year in which returns are available for all these statistical details,—in 1840 the following results were apparent. The export trade was—

Cod fish, dry.	Train and Seal Oils.	Seal skins.	Salmon.	Herrings.
Quintals.	Gallons.	No.	Tierces.	Barrels.
915,795	3,206,586	631,385	3,396	14,686

This embraces only the main or staple articles, which were valued at 983,961*l.*, or very nearly a

million; the trade of export having increased, since the preceding year, upwards of 82,596*l.* sterling.

The import trade for 1840 was to the amount of 784,045*l.*, thus leaving a balance in favour of the country of 199,916*l.* sterling; whilst, at the same time, this import trade had increased also, since the preceding year, upwards of 73,488*l.*

	£. sterling.
In 1840, the mother country sent goods to	
the value of - - - - -	305,805
Her colonies in North America sent ditto -	93,902
Her other colonies - - - - -	8,900
Her West India possessions - - - - -	2,617
The foreign markets sent - - - - -	213,615
The United States of America - - - - -	159,206

Newfoundland, in return, exported—

To the mother country, produce valued at -	382,027
To British colonies in North America -	91,904
To British West Indies - - - - -	71,048
To British Colonies elsewhere - - - - -	54,488
To foreign markets - - - - -	362,802
To the United States of America - - - - -	21,642

These are dry details, it is true, but they point out very clearly the importance of Newfoundland and the direction of its trade; and we have added, further on, extracts from the public records to shew their accuracy.\*

The market value of these articles in the island is now given, embodied in a scale of general average prices, to shew the value of every

\* See the end of this chapter for several statistical details, taken from the authorities of Public Records.

consumable item of the luxuries and necessities of life, which should always accompany any book professing to treat of a colony which is, or may become, the seat of emigration.

And let it not be supposed that a regular, though, it is true, a small stream of emigration, does not take its constant course towards Newfoundland. To convince the reader that such is the fact, we have only to cite the following abstract of

*British Emigration in 1840 and 1841.*

A parliamentary paper has lately been issued, intituled, "Returns of Emigration from the United Kingdom during the year 1840, and during the first two quarters of the year 1841."

In a recapitulation of the number of emigrants who embarked from the various ports in England, Scotland, and Ireland, we have the following results for the year 1840:—

North American Colonies—viz.: Canada, 21,209;		
Brunswick, 8056; Newfoundland, 387; Nova		
Scotia, 972; Cape Breton, 437; Prince Edward		
Island, 1214; Hudson's Bay, 18—Total		- 32,293
United States -	- - - - -	40,642
British West Indies -	- - - - -	1,591
Central America -	- - - - -	44
Cape of Good Hope -	- - - - -	266
West Coast and Islands of St. Helena and Mauritius		57
Australia—viz.: Swan River, 224; South Aus-		
tralia, 2748; Port Philip, 3473; Sydney, 7648;		
Van Dieman's Land, 299—Total		- 14,392
New Zealand -	- - - - -	1,458
Total to all parts of the world		- 90,713

*During the Quarter ending 5th of April, 1841.*

United States (of which 6783 embarked at Liverpool) - - - - -	8,767
Central America - - - - -	21
North American Colonies—viz.: Canada, 1378 ; New Brunswick, 2025 ; Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, 150 ; Newfoundland, 23 ; Prince Ed- ward's Island, 16—Total - - - - -	8,592
West Indies—viz.: Jamaica, 546 ; British Guiana, 31 ; Trinidad, 22 ; other West India Settlements, 133—Total - - - - -	732
Western Africa - - - - -	1
Cape of Good Hope - - - - -	34
Mauritius - - - - -	10
Australian Colonies—viz.: Sydney, 1957 ; Port Philip, 1821 ; Van Dieman's Land, 125 ; South Australia, 42 ; Western Australia, 24—Total -	3,969
New Zealand - - - - -	409
<hr/>	
Total to all parts of the world - - -	17,535

*During the Quarter ending 5th July, 1841.*

United States (of which 16,538 embarked at Liverpool) - - - - -	21,187
Texas (from London) - - - - -	20
Central America - - - - -	42
North American Colonies—viz.: Canada, 22,572 ; New Brunswick, 4,931 ; Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, 584 ; Newfoundland, 239 ; Prince Ed- ward's Island, 1774—Total - - - - -	30,100
West Indies—viz.: Jamaica, 28 ; British Guiana, 31 ; Trinidad, 39 ; and other West India Set- tlements, 153—Total - - - - -	251
Western Africa - - - - -	8
Cape of Good Hope - - - - -	66
Mauritius - - - - -	11

Australian Colonies—viz. : Sydney, 5808; Port	
Philip, 3035; Van Dieman's Land, 180; South	
Australia, 41; Western Australia, 135—Total -	
	9,157
New Zealand -	1,017
	<hr/>
Total to all parts of the world	61,859

According to the abstract of the late population returns, prepared to be laid before parliament, it appears, that while the population of England and Wales in 1821 was 11,978,875, there had emigrated in the next ten years 124,888. In 1831, the population was 13,899,186, and the emigration from that period to the present year, was 394,105. The population of Scotland, in 1821, was 2,093,456, and in the first decennial period there were 20,969 emigrants; in 1831 it was 2,365,114; and the emigrants, in the same period, 66,173. These details were taken from the Custom House reports; which, however, only include those who have left in emigrant ships, while a large portion of passengers, of whom no account is preserved, embark for the colonies and foreign lands in trading vessels.

Whilst upon this subject, to shew the growing importance of the British North American colonies, and that there is ample room for emigrant enterprise, we may add, that of the disposable lands of the crown in British North America, capable of cultivation, according to accounts that have been presented to parliament, and which are now printed, consisting of numerous statistical documents, there are curious details respect-

ing the quantities of crown lands in British North America disposed of since 1831, or that still remain wild, and unoccupied, or ungranted. From these statements it appears, that in the course of seven years, commencing with 1831, there have been sold in the two Canadas, "by public auction and by private contract at an upset price," very nearly 500,000 acres, realizing upwards of 100,000*l*. Besides such disposals of so large a quantity of land, nearly 2,500,000 acres have been granted without sale, during the same term of seven years; and in the two Canadas alone, it further appears that 5,500,000 acres of land are open for emigration, or other objects. Like extraordinary statements are made regarding other possessions in British North America. Without entering into particulars, the totals may suffice. In the colonies of Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island, and Newfoundland, since 1831, 1,250,000 acres have been sold; 373,909 acres have been granted without sale; and wild lands remaining ungranted amount to the enormous quantity of 20,500,000 acres, equal to nearly three-fourths of the extent of England itself, its area being 36,000,000 acres and upwards.

Whenever the south-west coast of Newfoundland and its vast interior shall be opened to the emigrant, he will find ample employment, and reap ample returns from making its soil assistant to the great purposes of the fisheries. Then—that is, as soon as agriculture lifts its head—the

island will no longer be behind its sister colonies in comfort; and the prices we now quote will soon and rapidly approximate in articles of necessity as well as luxury to those of Canada.

The capital, as most small capitals are, is now rather a dear place to live in for the middle and upper classes, unless they resort to the frequent use of fish and biscuit, instead of meat and baker's bread, as will be observed by the following table of present prices of most of the articles of consumption :—

*Table of average prices at St. John's, 1842, of some of the principal articles of merchandise and supply, relative to household and general economy.*

				Currency.
				£. s. d.
Bread, wheaten, per 4lb. loaf	-	-	-	0 0 9
Potatoes, per flour barrel of about 2 bushels	-	-	-	0 7 6
Sugar, Muscovado, by the barrel, per lb.	-	-	-	0 0 4½
Ditto, ditto, retail, ditto	-	-	-	0 0 6
White or loaf sugar, ditto	-	-	-	0 0 7
Flour, American, fine, per barrel	-	-	-	1 15 0
Ditto, ditto, superfine ditto	-	-	-	2 2 0
Biscuit, sea, per barrel	-	-	-	1 2 6
Ditto, first quality	-	-	-	1 6 0
Pork, Irish, prime, per barrel	-	-	-	4 0 0
Beef, best mess, ditto	-	-	-	” ” ”
Ditto, per lb., according to season, winter	-	-	-	0 1 0
summer	-	-	-	0 0 6
Mutton, ditto, ditto, winter	-	-	-	0 1 2
summer	-	-	-	0 0 8
Veal, ditto, ditto, winter	-	-	-	0 1 2
summer	-	-	-	0 0 8

The above meats by the carcass, when they arrive frozen in winter, can be occasionally bought more reasonably, but the supply is then uncertain.

	Currency.		
	£.	s.	d
Wine, best Port, per quarter cask, which bottles about 13 dozen - - - - -	13	10	0
Ditto, best Madeira, per quarter cask - - - - -	24	0	0
Ditto, sherry, best brown - - - - -	13	10	0
By retail, per bottle or dozen, these wines are as dear as in Canada.			
Ditto, Champagne, first brand, per basket of 2 dozen - - - - -	3	14	0
Porter, per cask of 3 dozen bottles - - - - -	1	13	0
Ale, ditto, ditto - - - - -	1	13	0
Irish porter in cask, or Halifax porter, may be had for about 3 <i>d.</i> or 4 <i>d.</i> a bottle or quart.			
Tea, per lb., retail, Souchong - - - - -	0	4	0
Hyson - - - - -	0	5	0
This by purchasing a chest is reduced to 2 <i>l.</i> 6 <i>s.</i> , or even less, according to the supply.			
Vinegar, best, per quart - - - - -	0	0	10
Molasses, per gallon (sometimes 2 <i>s.</i> ) - - - - -	0	1	10
A quintal of fall fish, or best cod (export price about 10 <i>s.</i> 9 <i>d.</i> retail, and sometimes 15 <i>s.</i> ) -	0	12	6
A barrel of salt herrings (export price 11 <i>s.</i> 10 <i>d.</i> retail, sometimes 15 <i>s.</i> ) - - - - -	0	12	6
Salt, per basket, for family use, fine - - - - -	0	0	9
Ditto, per bushel, coarse - - - - -	-	-	-
Salmon, per tierce, export - - - - -	3	2	6
Ditto, per lb., fresh - - - - -	0	0	6
Train-oil, per ton, export - - - - -	22	8	10
Seal-oil, ditto, ditto - - - - -	23	0	0
Ditto, pale, best for lamps, per gallon - - -	-	-	-
A keg of dried capelin, for breakfast fish -	0	5	0
A fine cod, fresh, during summer - - - - -	0	0	3
In autumn, in the fall of the year, 1 <i>s.</i> ; and in winter not to be had, except in a frozen state from Halifax, and that very rare.			
Lobsters, during the season, from 2 <i>d.</i> to -	0	0	6
Oysters, (from Prince Edward's Island chiefly,) per bushel, 5 <i>s.</i> ; per barrel of 3 bushels -	0	15	0

	Currency.		
	£.	s.	d.
Herrings, fresh during the season, per dozen -	0	0	6
A brace of ptarmigan or grouse, in autumn and winter - - - - -	0	2	6
Venison, in winter (scarce), per lb. - - -	0	0	7
Hay, per ton, usually, in good seasons, in autumn 4 <i>l.</i> ; and in spring, 8 <i>l.</i> ; in bad seasons, 10 <i>l.</i> at all times, and, of course, scarcely to be had in spring—average - - - - -	6	0	0
Oats, from 3 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> per bushel, to - - - - -	0	5	0
Straw, very difficult to get, from 5 <i>l.</i> per ton, to - - - - -	4	0	0
Milk, by retail, per quart, summer - - - - -	0	0	4
- - - - - winter - - - - -	0	0	5
Butter, fresh, made in pats, about, per lb. - - -	0	1	4
Ditto, Holstein, Nova Scotia, and Canada, per keg, varying in weight, but average 93 <i>lbs.</i> , per lb., from 9 <i>d.</i> to - - - - -	0	0	11
Eggs, from 1 <i>s.</i> , to, in Lent, per dozen - - - - -	0	2	0
Geese, in autumn, warranted not to have fed on fish, per couple - - - - -	0	12	0
Poultry, also warranted, per couple, from 3 <i>s.</i> to - - - - -	0	5	0
Turkeys, fine young, 7 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> a-piece, to, in winter - - - - -	1	3	4
Ducks, in autumn, warranted, per pair, from 2 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> to 5 <i>s.</i> and - - - - -	0	7	6
Coal, from Sydney or the neighbouring mines, the usual fuel in families at St. John's, averages per ton (but is usually sold by the hogshead, containing 9 bushels, at 7 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> per hogshead) - - - - -	11	6	0
Wood fuel is scarce, and being chiefly spruce or birch, is bad, for 100 small sticks, about six or eight feet long, and as thick as the wrist or arm, from 10 <i>s.</i> to - - - - -	0	12	6
Rum, best, per gallon - - - - -	0	10	0
Brandy, best Cognac, ditto - - - - -	0	14	6
Whisky, Irish - - - - -	0	7	6

There are a brewery for table-beer, and a whisky distillery, at St. John's, where these articles are produced, of a good quality.

						Currency.		
						£.	s.	d.
Pearl barley, per lb.	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	6
Mustard, ditto	-	-	-	-	-	0	2	0
Pepper, ditto	-	-	-	-	-	0	2	0
A pine-apple from West Indies, from 1s. 3d. to						0	2	6
Apples imported from the continent of America,								
per barrel, from 15s. to	-	-	-	-	-	1	0	0
Oranges, per box, from 12s. 6d. to	-	-	-	-	-	1	5	0
Pears and plums, not often imported.								
West India preserves, of an inferior quality, occasionally sold.								
Raisins, best Muscatel, per box of about 14lbs.						0	7	0
Currants, dried, per lb., from 9d. to	-	-	-	-	-	0	1	0
White Grapes, from Portugal and Spain, per								
lb., about 1s. 6d. or	-	-	-	-	-	0	2	0
Onions, per lb., from 3d. to	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	4
Ham, Westphalia, or best, from 9d. per lb., to						0	1	0
— Irish or American, ditto, 6d. per lb., to	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	8
Cheese, best English, from 1s. per lb., to	-	-	-	-	-	0	1	2
— American, ditto	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	10
A white hare, in winter	-	-	-	-	-	0	10	0

Articles of clothing, linen, woollen, or leather, are, of course, higher than in England, as there are no manufactures here, not even of the fleeces for stockings, of the leather for shoes, or of furs for hats, as in Canada.

Books and stationery being all imported, are also dearer, stationery particularly; for a shilling is the price demanded for a decent lead-pencil. But printing is done reasonably, considering the high price of labour and materials; and a newspaper is sent out once or twice a week for from one pound to one pound five per annum, each copy averaging sixpence currency.

The mode of keeping accounts in this island is

in pounds, shillings, and pence, currency; the pound, shilling, and penny, being imaginary, and bearing relation to the same denominations of real sterling coin, as follows:—Generally

A sovereign is usually considered as	£1	3	4	currency.
A shilling, British, as	-	-	0 1 2	—
A sixpence, ditto, as	-	-	0 0 7	—

This is, however, only in the ordinary transactions of retail, the coins in circulation being not only those of the mother country, but Spanish and South American dollars, Spanish half and quarter dollars, American half dollars, and a multitude of foreign coins from the old Spanish piastre down to the American dione. In short, almost any piece of silver is current, and the value is settled by long custom. The old three shilling and one and sixpence Bank token of England go for that value in currency, whilst the new shilling, which in Canada is worth one shilling and threepence, is here, as already stated, only worth one shilling and twopence. The value of old silver of any kind per ounce fluctuates, but the average is not more than from five shillings to five shillings and sixpence currency.

The copper money is in the same state,—any piece of any country, or any coinage, going for one halfpenny, but none but the British penny and Guiana stiver will go for a penny, however large it may be.

In short, the currency here is much in the

same state as it was in Canada, and even worse, and the peddlers from the Continent no doubt drive a thriving trade by abstracting the really valuable British silver and copper from circulation, almost all the money in the military chest latterly being South American; the Spanish pillar dollar is disappearing very fast, on account of its superior intrinsic value over those of the Bolivian, Peruvian, and Mexican States.

The military chest regulates its supply by the value of the dollar, army currency at present, being at the rate of four shillings and twopence sterling for each silver dollar, at which rate it generally stands, although the Commissariat may sometimes obtain a trifle higher on Treasury bills, the troops, however, receiving the dollar at four shillings and twopence constantly. Thus, to obtain the difference between army currency and sterling money, the rule is to multiply by five and divide by six; the former, if it is desired to convert the currency into sterling, and the latter *vice versa*.

The only banking establishment in Newfoundland is that of the branch of the Bank of British North America, issuing its own local notes. This bank, of which Andrew Milroy, Esq., is manager, was opened in 1837, and has proved of very great convenience to the community. It has three local directors, an accountant, and a teller; but, notwithstanding this institution, the state of the market seasons for fish and oil causes very great fluctuation in obtaining bills upon England.

The highest rate of exchange within this last year or two may be stated at twenty per cent., and the lowest at twelve; the seasons being adverse to profit on such bills in winter, and favourable in spring and autumn. The spring creates a demand for cash to pay the sealing voyages, particularly if they are not prosperous, and the autumn for the produce of the fishery. The merchants usually take an account of their stock, and balance their books as soon after the expiration of the year as possible, in order to ensure the credits for the spring supplies.

There is no bonus given to the drawer of a bill upon Britain, as in Canada, the simple mode being to add the per centage in currency of the state of exchange to the original sum in sterling as a sum in currency. Thus there can never be any great advantage gained by the drawer, who is usually the loser, the par being at about four shillings and fourpence the dollar, which is only fifteen and one third currency premium upon one hundred pounds sterling, and the average rate, it has been seen, rarely passes this limit, but is frequently below it; so that a resident, unconnected with mercantile speculations, who wishes to draw upon his banker at home, must very carefully watch his opportunities throughout the year, in order to insure even the most trifling gain upon his bills. If he wishes to purchase a bill, he must usually be at the cost, as the merchants or the bank can always afford to do such business upon better terms and with a much quicker and more

certain market than an individual could pretend to.

It is not necessary to go deeper into a question upon which a mere settler, or European reader, can have no greater interest than to know what money is actually worth in Newfoundland; and, if he is a civilian, he thus finds that four shillings and fourpence British sterling represent the silver dollar of five shillings currency, agreeably to Colonial proclamation. If he is a military man, he finds, if he is paid from the military chest, which the Ordnance corps are not, but the Infantry, Staff, and Departments, are, his five shilling currency-dollar in silver is worth, when received by him, four shillings and twopence sterling, the fluctuations in the money-market being most uncertain, and confined in its operations to banking and mercantile transactions; whilst the merchant at home would laugh at a military writer, who should pretend to point out monetary rules for the guidance of his extensive transactions. The actual amount of coin in circulation is conjectured to be usually about 100,000*l.* sterling.

The revenue is derived from two sources, there being no direct taxation.

The first is a trifling sum raised from the sale of tavern and other licences, and from the sale and rent of crown lands and ships' rooms, from the produce of writs and fines, and from the duties on wines and spirits.

The second is a heavy duty of three and a half

per cent. on all goods imported from Britain, without proportionate charges on foreign and colonial manufactures and produce.

These duties tend to render Newfoundland a much dearer place to live in than the Canadas, and also to introduce for consumption very inferior articles; whilst at certain seasons, for want of due protection and stimulus to agricultural pursuits, when fodder is scarce, from an inadequate supply in the island of hay or oats, or when the crops have failed, the introduced articles of cattle and horse-keeping from Nova Scotia, or Prince Edward's Island, (as was the case during the hot, dry summer of 1840,) become very dear, and thus influence the prices of meat. At such time, straw is not to be had at all, and the prices of indifferent hay and oats are most exorbitant.

#### PUBLIC REVENUE OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

Duties collected under Provincial acts	-	£21,000	
Under Imperial ditto	-	16,000	
		<hr/>	40,000
Less:—Reserved salaries	-	6,500	
Customs' department	-	5,500	
		<hr/>	12,000

Leaving £28,000

per annum, at the disposal of the Provincial Legislature.

The above is an approximation to the actual revenue only, as in the year ending 1840 it was—

	£.
Customs' Revenue, under Imperial acts	- 15,251
Ditto, under Colonial acts - - -	- 25,703
Light-house dues - - - -	- 1,375

42,329

which, with rents of Crown lands, sale of Crown lands, licences, fines, and fees, brought it up to £2908 more, or - - - - £45,237

The salaries of the public officers paid out of the revenue, and reserved under the Acts 2nd and 3rd William IV., cap. 78:—

Governor - - -	£3,000
Chief Justice - - -	1,200
First Assistant Judge -	700
Second ditto ditto - -	700
Attorney-General - -	450
Colonial Secretary - -	500

At present, there is a large balance in the Treasury, after the salaries of all the colonial officers shall be paid.

It may serve to speculate upon, in comparison with the neighbouring colonies, for some future writer whose work shall be exclusively statistical, to give a general notion of the articles from which the revenue is derived, as well as the staple and customary exports, which we shall therefore do concisely, although not our original intention, from the public records, and we shall select the year 1837, being one of an average, and near enough to the present time for the purpose.

*Port of St. John's. Imports of 1837.—Custom House Return,  
6th January, 1838.*

Articles imported.	Quantity.	Value.			Duties.		
		£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Wine—							
1st class, gallons	343 $\frac{2}{3}$	248	11	1	25	15	1
2nd ditto - „	9,095 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,187	13	4	454	15	8
3rd ditto - „	14,658 $\frac{3}{5}$	1,533	10	4	549	4	1
4th ditto - „	11,548	917	9	1	288	14	0
Spirits - „	242,163	24,232	6	8	6,054	1	6
Apples bushels	1,748	872	9	6	43	14	3
Beef and pork } salted - {	50,897 2 22	86,730	16	10	1,878	15	0
Bread or biscuit „	115,867 2 10	58,550	7	5	1,448	17	0
Butter - „	16,199 0 3	54,588	16	5	1,214	18	10
Cattle, neat, head	1,730	14,386	0	0	432	10	0
Coals - - tons	14,337	10,653	14	4	358	8	9
Flour - barrels	61,606 $\frac{3}{4}$	68,232	8	8	2,310	5	4
Goods, wares, and merchandise, not otherwise described, or enumerated - }	- - - -	363,461	13	8	9,086	12	5
Hogs - - „	18	14	15	0	0	9	0
Horses, mares, or geldings - }	46	462	0	0	23	0	0
Lumber - feet	3,690,129	7,776	3	9	184	10	3
Oatmeal - barrels	2,476 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,766	6	10	61	16	3
Timber (tons) and balk of all kinds, including scant- ling - - }	832	856	0	6	20	16	1
Sheep - head	1,842	951	8	0	46	1	1
Shingles - -	3,111,695	1,555	10	1	52	0	6
Tea - - lbs.	566	57	0	0	2	7	2
Total - - - -		699,985	1	5	24,538	2	2

*The Staple Articles exported (Fish, Oils, Seal-skins, Furs, &c.) from 5th July, 1837, to 5th July, 1838.—Custom House return, Port of St. John's.*

From whence exported.	Cod fish. Quintals. (112lbs.)	Salmon. Tierces.	Herrings. Barrels.	Seal and Cod Oil. Gallons.	Seal skins. No.	Ox and cow hides. No.
St. John's { In British ships	406,462	1484	3897	1,332,181	252,958	3970
{ In foreign ditto	60,500	—	—	—	—	—
Exports, in British ships -	319,984	778	1918	780,418	98,662	449
Total - - - -	786,946	2262	5815	2,112,599	351,620	4419

*Vessels cleared and entered between 5th July, 1837, and 5th July, 1838.*

	Inwards.						Outwards.					
	British ships.			Foreign ships.			British ships.			Foreign ships.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
St. John's - -	619	69,821	3972	24	3298	230	591	66,341	3937	24	3337	236
Exports - -	252	29,017	1857	—	—	—	271	31,312	1946	—	—	—
Total for the island	871	98,838	5829	24	3298	230	862	97,662	5883	24	3337	236

Articles.				Quantities.	
Ale and porter	-	-	-	gallons	108,513
Anchors and cables	-	-	-	value	£ 2,661
Apples	-	-	-	barrels	3,463
Bacon and hams, &c.	-	-	-	cwt.	387
Beef, salted	-	-	-	ditto	4,072½
Billets	-	-	-	value	£ 213
Board and plank	-	-	-	feet	2,285,596
Brandy	-	-	-	gallons	10,316½
Bran	-	-	-	bags	1,139
Bread	-	-	-	cwt.	119,900½
Bricks	-	-	-	number	651,378
Butter	-	-	-	cwt.	17,586
Candles	-	-	-	ditto	2,749
Canvas	-	-	-	value	£ 9,946
Cattle	-	-	-	head	1,189
Chocolate	-	-	-	lbs.	12,341
Cheese	-	-	-	cwt.	587½
Cider	-	-	-	gallons	16,342
Cigars	-	-	-	number	278,350
Coals	-	-	-	tons	12,193
Coffee	-	-	-	cwt.	1,343½
Cocoa	-	-	-	lbs.	4,821
Cordial	-	-	-	gallons	138
Corkwood	-	-	-	cwt.	536
Cordage and oakum	-	-	-	ditto	11,051
Cotton manufactures	-	-	-	value	£ 53,288
Earthenware	-	-	-	crates	465
Eau de Cologne	-	-	-	value	£ 3
Feathers	-	-	-	lbs.	14,766
Flour	-	-	-	barrels	75,661
Fruit	-	-	-	packages	6,369
Furniture	-	-	-	pieces	1,543
Geneva	-	-	-	gallons	8,794
Glass	-	-	-	boxes	525
Glass ware	-	-	-	value	£ 782
Gunpowder	-	-	-	lbs.	39,925
Hay	-	-	-	tons	179½
Herrings	-	-	-	boxes	289
Horses	-	-	-	value	£ 45
Indian corn	-	-	-	bushels	5,730
Iron, bar and bolt	-	-	-	value	£ 1,746
Lard	-	-	-	cwt.	398
Lead and lead-shot	-	-	-	value	£ 2,523
Leather and leather ware	-	-	-	ditto	£ 41,366

Articles.	Quantities.	
Lime, chalk, &c. - - -	value	£ 485
Lines, twines, and nets - - -	ditto	£ 20,874
Iron manufactures - - -	ditto	£ 18,599
Linen manufactures - - -	ditto	£ 4,067
Mahogany - - -	ditto	£ 17
Meat, fresh - - -	ditto	£ 561
Miscellaneous manufactures - - -	ditto	£ 12,565
Meal, oat - - -	barrels	3,106
Meal, Indian - - -	ditto	1,246
Molasses - - -	gallons	530,588
Nails - - -	cwt.	4,447
Oats and barley - - -	bushels	11,970
Olive oil - - -	gallons	1,687
Oil, sperm - - -	ditto	360
Oil, linseed - - -	ditto	3,365
Paint - - -	cwt.	854
Pease and beans - - -	bushels	2,284
Pigs - - -	number	75
Pimento - - -	lbs.	836
Pitch, tar, and varnish - - -	barrels	5,429
Potatoes and other vegetables - - -	ditto	50,492
Pork - - -	cwt.	37,744
Rice - - -	ditto	992
Rum - - -	gallons	161,156
Salt - - -	tons	37,398
Sheep - - -	number	2,033
Shingles - - -	ditto	1,742,250
Silver manufactures - - -	value	£ 335
Silk ditto - - -	ditto	£ 4,284
Soap - - -	cwt.	6,453
Spars - - -	number	466
Spirits of turpentine - - -	gallons	211
Staves - - -	number	663,647
Sugar, Musc. - - -	cwt.	15,900
Sugar, refined - - -	ditto	1,583
Tallow - - -	ditto	99
Tea - - -	lbs.	104,690
Tobacco - - -	ditto	362,311
Timber - - -	tons	908
Vinegar - - -	gallons	4,060
Whisky - - -	ditto	4,973
Wheat - - -	bushels	5019
Wine - - -	gallons	26,389
Woolens - - -	value	£ 72,204

## TOTAL IMPORTS IN 1840.

*Of these articles, the estimated value, in pounds sterling, is as follows, from the different countries.*

Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States of America.	Foreign States.	VALUE OF TOTAL IMPORTS IN 1840.
	West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
£305,805	£2,617	£93,902	£8,900	£159,206	£213,615	£784,045

## . TOTAL IMPORTS IN 1839.

Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States of America.	Foreign States.	VALUE OF TOTAL IMPORTS IN 1839.
	West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
£283,181	£3,740	£78,196	£7,184	£53,934	£284,322	£710,557

The above shews an increase, in 1840, of £73,488.

The principal trade from the United States of America is in beef (salted), biscuit, candles, cigars, coffee, fruit, molasses, pitch, tar and varnish, pork, rum, salt, staves, and Muscovado sugar and tobacco, with what the Americans call notions, such as furniture and fancy articles, ale, porter, and various small articles of provisions.

From the West India colonies,—molasses, rum, and Muscovado sugar.

From British North America,—ale and porter, board and plank.

Bread, butter, cattle, from Prince Edward's Island, chiefly; coals, from Cape Breton; flour from Canada, &c.; molasses, potatoes and vegetables, pork, rum, shingles, sheep, spars, staves, sugar (Muscovado), tea, timber, wheat.

From Foreign States and Colonies :—bread, chiefly from Hamburgh; butter, from ditto; coffee, cordage and oakum, flour, fruit—Spain and Portugal; leather and leather ware, meal (oat), molasses, faringa—West Indies; peas and beans, pork, rum, salt—in 1840, 16,732 tons, sugar (Muscovado), and wine from Spain and Portugal.

The exports from Great Britain are,—ale and porter, chiefly from Ireland; anchors and cables, brandy, bread, butter (Irish), candles, canvass, cheese, coals, cordage, and oakum, cotton manufactures (of which were imported to the value of 52,766*l.* in 1840), earthenware, flour, gunpowder, iron (bar and bolt), lead and shot, leather and leather ware (of which, in 1840, 30,832*l.*), lines, twines, and nets (in 1840, 19,427*l.*), iron manufactures (in 1840, 17,279*l.*), linen (3997*l.*), miscellaneous manufactures (in 1840, 11,007*l.*), nails, paint, pork, salt (in 1840, 5492 tons), soap, refined sugar (in 1840, 2295 cwt.), tea, 5601*l.* in 1840, from Great Britain, and 4835*l.* from British North America, making a total value of tea imported of 10,436*l.*; woollen manufactures, in 1840, 70,576*l.*

## EXPORTS IN 1840.

(Marked thus \*, Produce and Staple.)

Description of Articles.				Quantities.	
Ale and Porter	-	-	-	gallons	741
Anchors and cables	-	-	-	value	£686
Bacon, hams, &c.	-	-	-	ditto	£34
Beef, salt	-	-	-	cwt.	203 $\frac{1}{2}$
*Berries	-	-	-	gallons	2,850
Board and plank	-	-	-	feet	42,310
Bread	-	-	-	cwt.	879
Bricks	-	-	-	number	64,500
Butter	-	-	-	cwt.	65
Brandy	-	-	-	gallons	9
Candles	-	-	-	cwt.	5
Canvas	-	-	-	value	£689
*Capelin	-	-	-	packages	289
Chocolate	-	-	-	lbs.	325
Cheese	-	-	-	lbs.	600
Cigars	-	-	-	number	157,750
Coals	-	-	-	tons	155
Coffee	-	-	-	lbs.	18,499
*Corn	-	-	-	bushels	18
Corkwood	-	-	-	cwt.	588
Copper	-	-	-	lbs.	6,792
Cordage and oakum	-	-	-	cwt.	545
Cotton manufactures	-	-	-	value	£1,244
Earthenware	-	-	-	crates	50
*Fish (core)	-	-	-	quintals	966
*Fish (dry cod)	-	-	-	ditto	915,795
Flour	-	-	-	barrels	963
Fruit	-	-	-	value	£70
*Furs	-	-	-	number	3,083
Furniture	-	-	-	value	£375
Geneva	-	-	-	gallons	23
Glass	-	-	-	value	£59
Glass ware	-	-	-	ditto	£18
*Herrings	-	-	-	barrels	14,686
*Hides	-	-	-	number	2,929
*Hoops	-	-	-	bundles	982
Iron, bar and bolt	-	-	-	value	£222

Description of Articles.					Quantities.
Iron manufactures	-	-	-	-	value £ 368
Iron, old	-	-	-	-	ditto £ 61
Junk	-	-	-	-	tons 121
*Knees, wooden	-	-	-	-	number 40
Lard	-	-	-	-	cwt. 172
Leather ware	-	-	-	-	value £ 431
Lines, &c.	-	-	-	-	ditto £ 390
Linen manufactures	-	-	-	-	ditto £ 96
Oatmeal	-	-	-	-	ditto £ 3
Miscellaneous	-	-	-	-	ditto £ 699
Molasses	-	-	-	-	gallons 22,001
Nails	-	-	-	-	cwt. 69
*Oars	-	-	-	-	number 791
Oats	-	-	-	-	bushels 236
Oil, linseed	-	-	-	-	gallons 40
Oil, olive	-	-	-	-	ditto 1,616
*Oil, seal and cod	-	-	-	-	ditto 3,206,586
Paint	-	-	-	-	cwt. 43
Peas	-	-	-	-	bushels 251
Pitch and Tar	-	-	-	-	barrels 233
*Potatoes	-	-	-	-	ditto 185
Pork	-	-	-	-	cwt. 2,522
Rum	-	-	-	-	gallons 6,332
Rice	-	-	-	-	cwt. 9
*Salmon	-	-	-	-	tierces 3,396
Salt	-	-	-	-	tons 1,627
*Skins, calf	-	-	-	-	number 310
*Skins, sheep	-	-	-	-	ditto 200
*Skins, seal	-	-	-	-	ditto 631,385
Staves	-	-	-	-	ditto 6,300
Soap	-	-	-	-	value £ 42
Sugar, refined	-	-	-	-	cwt. 204
Sugar, Muscovado	-	-	-	-	cwt. 6,832 $\frac{1}{2}$
Tea	-	-	-	-	lbs. 1,631
*Tongues and sounds	-	-	-	-	value £ 256
Tobacco	-	-	-	-	lbs. 16,258
Whisky	-	-	-	-	gallons 3
Wine	-	-	-	-	ditto 9,094
Woollens	-	-	-	-	value £ 3,960

## TOTAL EXPORTS IN 1840,

*Estimated value of Exports to different countries in pounds sterling.*

Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States of America.	Foreign States.	TOTAL EXPORTS IN 1840.
	West Indies.	British North America.	Elsewhere.			
£382,077	£71,048	£91,904	£54,488	£21,642	£362,802	£983,961

## TOTAL EXPORTS IN 1839.

Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States of America.	Foreign States.	TOTAL EXPORTS IN 1839.
	West Indies.	British North America.	Elsewhere.			
£313,380	£66,742	£80,857	£27,579	£25,273	£387,554	£901,385

The above shows an increase in 1840, of £82,576.

The exports to the United States are—beef (salt), 100*l.*; board and plank, 8*l.*; cheese, 25*l.*; coal, 95*l.*; copper, 101*l.*; dry cod-fish, 189*l.*; herrings, 1547*l.*; junk, 142*l.*; leather ware, 200*l.*; miscellaneous, 37*l.*; oars, 10*l.*; seal and cod oil, 7326*l.*; potatoes, 3*l.*; pork, 105*l.*; salmon, 4896*l.*; sheep-skins, 10*l.*; seal-skins, 6400*l.*; tobacco, 85*l.*; wine, 353*l.*

Great Britain consumed,—berries, 157*l.*; board and plank, 79*l.*; capelin, 100*l.*; copper, 63*l.*; cordage and oakum, 5*l.*; core fish, 469*l.*; dry cod, 58,761*l.*; fruit, 4*l.*; furs, 1419*l.*; furniture, 19*l.*; glass, 1*l.*; glass ware, 10*l.*; herrings, 172*l.*; hides, 1423*l.*; old iron, 1*l.*; junk, 530*l.*; knees (wooden), 4*l.*; miscellaneous, 282*l.*; oars, 21*l.*; oats, 6*l.*; seal and cod oil, 281,028*l.*; rum, 324*l.*; salmon, 962*l.*; salt (tons), 1472*l.*; calf-skins, 28*l.*; seal-skins, 31,447*l.*; staves, 22*l.*; tongues and sounds, 85*l.*; wine (gallons), 67*l.*; woollens, 20*l.*

British West Indies :—berries, 12*l.*; capelin, 4*l.*; core-fish, 10*l.*; dry cod, 61,361*l.*; herrings, 819*l.*; hoops, 991*l.*; seal and cod oil, 507*l.*; potatoes, 35*l.*; pork (cwt.), 3480*l.*; salmon, 1694*l.*; tongues and sounds, 69*l.*; wine, 996*l.*; woollens, 313*l.*; with a variety of small British goods and small articles of provision.

The colonies of British North America took cordage and oakum, 1030*l.*; cotton manufactures, 1195*l.*; dry cod, 54,547*l.*; herrings, 6473*l.*; molasses, 1620*l.*; seal and cod oil, 2203*l.*; pork, 1226*l.*; salmon, 2403*l.*, seal-skins, 1561*l.*; sugar (Muscovado), 7020*l.*; wine, 1040*l.*; woollens, 3407*l.*; and also a variety of British goods and provisions. The other British possessions, principally dry cod-fish, 50,852*l.*; and seal and cod oil, 2298*l.*

The Foreign States—chiefly, dry cod, 350,535*l.*; seal and cod oil, 8833*l.*; salmon, 2770*l.*; and tongues and sounds, 32*l.*

*Shipping, Tonnage, and Men, employed in 1839 and 1840.*

## INWARDS.

	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States of America.		Foreign States.		Totals.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1839	163	19,390	356	28,064	48	5,207	294	3,900	861	91,661
1840	209	26,301	382	29,657	110	13,632	304	42,861	1005	112,181
Increase in 1840 - 144										20,320
										1008

## OUTWARDS.

	Great Britain.		British Colonies.		United States of America.		Foreign States.		Totals.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
1839	136	15,286	419	40,217	20	1962	259	32,830	834	90,295
1840	179	20,648	486	50,823	48	5716	239	29,798	952	106,986
Increase in 1840 - 118										6,691
										887

Goods are weighed and measured according to the Imperial standards.

## FRENCH COD FISHERY.

The following statistical account of the cod fishery of France is given in the "Constitutionnel:"—

"The cod fishery employs 400 French ships, measuring together 50,000 tons, and manned by

11,000 sailors; also, 200 transports, or coasting vessels, with 2000 men, so that it maintains 600 ships and 13,000 men. France possesses 305 myriamètres, or about 450 leagues of coast. There was a time when the French fishery on the banks of Newfoundland was sufficiently extensive to supply nearly the wants of all Europe, and for manning the whole of the French navy; but in consequence of the treaty of Utrecht, 1713, that of Vervins, in 1783, and the cession of Canada, France was reduced to the confined right of fishing on the eastern and western coasts of Newfoundland, without the power of establishing any dwelling-place or building upon it, except such huts and scaffolding as are absolutely necessary for drying and curing the fish. Under such circumstances, it is evident that France can never compete with the English fishermen, who have fixed residences on the island; or with those of America, who have the advantage of being close to their own shores. As shelters for her ships she possesses only the small island of St. Pierre and Miquelon, presenting but bare rocks, which must be constantly supplied from without with every necessary, even firewood.

The maintenance of the French fishery, therefore depends upon the encouragement which it receives from the government, otherwise it would almost cease to exist, and a nursery for 13,000 sailors would be obliterated. In 1793, the French lists of able seamen contained 100,000 men. In 1815, the number was reduced to 83,000. In

1836, it increased to 90,511, and in 1840, to 98,706. This augmentation has been derived chiefly from the expansion of the cod fishery, which, in consequence of the encouragement it has received, increased from 30,584 tons and 8108 men in 1816, to 54,995 tons and 11,499 men in 1839. Besides the ships expressly fitted out for the fishery, there are between sixty and eighty other vessels employed in conveying cargoes of cod from the banks to the colonies. There are likewise a number of transports, engaged in carrying between 25,000,000 and 30,000,000 killo-grammes (50,000,000 and 60,000,000lbs.) of salt, and also pitch, flour, and all other necessary provisions for 13,000 men during the eight months of the year. This keeps annually employed about 50,000 tons of shipping. It may be said, therefore, without exaggeration, that the cod fisheries furnish France with 12,000 able seamen, being nearly one-fourth of the whole number required for her navy, but at the same time insufficient to man her fleets in time of war. No other part of her sea-going trade could furnish a similar result, as it would require 170,000 tons of colonial merchantmen to supply the 12,000 sailors furnished by the cod fishery. The loss of St. Domingo deprived France of the employment of 167,665 tons of shipping, and still her trade with that island engaged no more than 9,855 men.

It appears that, in the last year, the French Bank fishery has not been successful. They employed a mode of taking the cod on the banks,

which leads to serious losses in bad weather. An immense number of baited lines are laid out on floats, and the hooks, instead of being made of tempered iron, as ours are, are manufactured from a soft mixed metal; this enables them to bend them into a sort of elbow angle, and to remove them with ease by straightening, when the fish is hauled up. These accumulations of lines are frequently lost in thick and bad weather; but where successful, of course save a great deal of the customary labour; but after all, it is a poaching method of catch.

I have seen a mass of these lines and soft silvery-looking hooks, which had been found at sea, or hauled up with our cod lines from the bottom, in the possession of one of our John Bull fishermen, who treated the invention with the most profound contempt. Indeed, one can scarcely imagine that they can answer the purpose, as the cod is a heavy strong fish, and when he comes up to the surface, makes violent struggles to be off.

The principal items of Imperial and of Colonial expenditure are, the Civil Department of Government.

The Customs' establishment.

Judicial department.

Police and magistracy.

Ecclesiastical department.

Legislative department.

Pensions.

Relief of the poor.

Making roads and bridges.

Aids to public institutions and education.

Expenses of light-houses.

A geological survey of the coasts only of the Island.

The delegations to the Home Government.

Payment and interest on loans.

Destruction of wolves.

These, after being all defrayed, leave a considerable balance in the treasurer's hands, who has besides from accumulation, a considerable sum on hand to meet current expenses.

The Imperial Revenue has suffered some diminution last year, in consequence of the general prevalence of the temperance movement.

The Imperial Revenue for the year ending	
5th July 1840, collected under acts previously to 18th Geo. III., amounted to	
In 1839, to	£2,618
Under subsequent acts, to same periods as above	3,123
In 1839, to	12,632
	17,006
	<hr/>
	£15,250 £20,129

making an apparent deficiency of nearly five thousand pounds, which is partly accounted for, by the period of collection having been altered from 5th January to 5th July each year.

In 1840, the Colonial Customs' Revenue collected was	
In 1839	
The light-dues, in 1840	£25,703
In 1839	17,121
Rents of Crown Lands, sale of ditto, licences, fines, and fees of courts of justice	1,375
	699
	1,533
	1,946
	<hr/>
Colonial Totals - -	£28,611 £19,766
Shewing an increase of £8,845.	

This arose from an addition of one per cent. on the half-year's duties on imports.

## POLICE.

The Police consists of three stipendiary magistrates at St. John's, and a high constable, with six other constables.

The Magistrates have	-	£300	a year.
The High Constable	- -	80	"
The others	- - -	45	"

In Conception Bay there are thirteen police constables, and in the other outports, one at each principal fishing station.

The stipendiary magistrates at the following stations also are police magistrates, and the first receives a salary of 150*l.* a year; the next three, 120*l.*; and the remainder, 100*l.*—viz., Harbour Grace, Carbonear, Brigus, Trinity, Bonavista, Twillingate, Bay of Bulls, Ferryland, St. Mary's, Placentia, Burin, Grand Bank, and Harbour Britain; so that the nucleus of an efficient police is always at hand. There are also six goalers at St. John's, Harbour Grace, Trinity, Ferryland, Placentia, and Burin, with salaries of from 50*l.* to 25*l.* each.

There are seven coroners: two in Conception Bay, one at St. John's, and one at Greenspond, Twillingate, Trinity, Harbour Britain, and Western Bay, without salaries, and paid from fees.

There are nine clerks of the peace, with small salaries, varying from 150*l.* to 20*l.* at St. John's,

Harbour Grace, Trinity, Placentia, Ferryland, Brigus, Bonavista, Burin, and Harbour Britain, receiving small fees, also.

The mother country pays the Ecclesiastical Department, as far as the Lord Bishop of Newfoundland and the Vicar Apostolic (Roman-catholic bishop) are concerned only; the former receiving his income from the annual vote for the North American clergy estimate; and the latter 75*l.* from the same source, as appears by the Parliamentary papers for 1839, 1840; but the clergy of all persuasions are provided for from no public moneys. The pensioners are two widows of public officers, and two persons compensated for loss of office, the whole by the colony, and amounting to only about 130*l.*

The Colonial Government annually affords—

100*l.* to the Orphan Asylum Benevolent Irish Society's School, which has about two hundred male scholars.

100*l.* to St. Patrick's Free School at Harbour Grace, which has about one hundred male and female scholars.

100*l.* to the Presentation Convent School, superintended by five nuns, which has about five hundred female scholars, and is eminently useful.

300*l.* to the Schools of the Newfoundland and British North American School Society which are at St. John's, with four in the vicinity, at Harbour Grace, and two in the Bay; at Trinity, and four branches.

In Bonavista and Trinity Bays, and on the North-east shore, thirteen branches. They are taught on Bell's system, and had in 1840, about 1600 male and female scholars.

For any further particulars respecting these interesting schools, the reader can refer to the annual reports of the Society, and will confer a benefit on the island if supporting them by an annual subscription, as their extension is much required in a country possessing so few of the means of education.

I shall close this chapter, by stating the value of stock, and some articles of food for farming or other purposes on the east side of the island,—at St. John's, for instance,—according to the season, being dearest in spring:—

Beef cattle, or cows, working oxen not being used as yet, per head, from 15*l.* to 8*l.*

A good saddle horse, from 20*l.* to 25*l.* or 30*l.* currency, or average, 20*l.*

Sheep, from 40*s.* to 20*s.* and 15*s.*

A good milch goat, 1*l.* 10*s.*; a kid from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.*

Fat hogs, from 5*l.* to 3*l.*

Milk, from 4*d.* to 5*d.* per quart.

The 4*lb* loaf, good wheat bread, from 8*d.* to 9*d.*

The farm servants, and servants generally, have fish three times a week, and seldom fresh meat; and the bread they use is biscuit. Their wages are as follow:—

For a farm servant found in food, about 12*l.* per annum.

For a domestic male servant, from 18*l.* to 24*l.* ditto.

Tradesman, not found, 30*l.* per annum.

Female cook, from 9*l.* to 12*l.* per annum, found in food.

Housemaid, from 6*l.* to 9*l.* ditto, ditto.

Boy, about 10*l.*

The male domestic servants have also clothing given them according to agreement, and all require tea and sugar, and sometimes butter.

The farm-servants frequently go to the seal-fishery, and are, with the other classes, except amongst the higher grades, shipped, as it is called; or, in other words, have a paper to sign mutually with the master, for the agreement as to time and wages. A few good gentlemen's servants of steady character, and understanding horses and garden-work, would find employment at the capital.

The servants here, when they come to hire, or to be "shipped," as they call it, say, if they have a written character, that they have an "accommodation" from Mr. So-and-So, and a very accommodating piece of paper it often is, for there are very few young or good men-servants to be had, as the fishery absorbs all that class: and thus a man-servant in the capital has usually made the capital tour of service of that small city, before he hires himself to a stranger.

## PART VI.

### MODERN GEOGRAPHY AND TOPOGRAPHY.

#### CHAPTER XIV.

PRESENT ASPECT OF THE ISLAND, ITS DIVISIONS,  
ROADS, PUBLIC WORKS, AND CONCLUDING RE-  
MARKS: WITH NOTICES OF THE RED INDIAN  
TRIBE, SUPPOSED TO BE NOW EXTINCT.

THERE is no doubt some irregularity in making the last chapter of a work like this describe the outlines of a country upon which it has been treating; but like a lady's letter, there may be more in the summing-up of the postscript than meets the eye in the body of the epistle.

In fact, I was desirous to obtain the most correct information, and to exhibit the newest map; a work of time and trouble, which caused this chapter (which some may think should have been the first) to be the last.

Newfoundland, lying between  $47^{\circ} 46' 39''$  N.L., which is the latitude of its southern point, Cape Ray, according to careful observation taken on

board H. M. S. Hussar, and  $51^{\circ} 35' 30''$  N.L., the latitude of Cape Norman, according to Norie's Chart—Cape Norman being the northernmost point of the island itself; although Cape Bauld, on Quirpon Isle, and Belle Isle, are both much further, the first by nearly fifteen seconds, and the other by several minutes.

The parallels of longitude it occupies are from Cape Spear, near St. John's, on the east coast, in  $52^{\circ} 33' 27''$  W.L., well ascertained by frequent observations, there being a light-house on it, and Cape Anguille, on the west coast, near St. George's Bay, which Norie's Chart gives as in  $59^{\circ} 20' 2''$  W.L. from Greenwich.

It thus occupies about the same parallels of latitude, and the same position on the western face of the globe, as the southern parts of England and the northern coasts of France do on the eastern hemisphere.

It resembles the shape of England, being an irregular triangle, and its average length may be roughly stated at 450 miles, whilst its extreme breadth is about 300, although its mean breadth is not more than 200. A line drawn round the three sides of its triangular-shaped coast, so as to include and exclude, as is done by surveyors in the contents of land, would embrace upwards of 1000 miles; whilst the deep indentations and great bays on the east and south, would, if circumnavigated, more than double the line of coast. But it is so cut up in this way on every side save the west, which has its shore, that no safe calcu-

lation of its area can be made without great trouble and more difficulty than are necessary for a mere abstract question; I think, however, it may be stated, for general statistical purposes, at 36,000 square miles, or 23,040,000 acres.

England and Wales contain, according to the "Edinburgh Gazetteer," from thirty-two to thirty-six millions of acres, so that if it were not for the great bays of Newfoundland, the area of both would not be very dissimilar.

The whole of this immense territory is, comparatively speaking, open for settlement, being inhabited only on the coasts by a seafaring population of British subjects, now in numbers from eighty to a hundred thousand, for it is impossible, at present, from its scattered condition and the want of a census, to arrive at the truth in this respect. It is certainly, however, not less than eighty thousand—thus, taking only a small percentage, affording a defence of a militia, inured to toil, of not less than ten thousand able-bodied men, equally capable of serving ashore as afloat, and almost all from habit, using fire-arms—in fact, a regular army of Sea Fencibles of the best materials.

Newfoundland is the nearest portion of British America to the mother country, and her oldest colony. The distance across the Atlantic from St. David's Head to Cape Spear being only 1860 miles, and from Liverpool only about 2000, whilst it is much nearer from the west coast of

Ireland, and does not exceed 1550 miles from Cape Clear, or not more than from eight to ten days' steam passage from any port on the south-west coast of England, or the west coast of Ireland.

Voyages are frequently made to Waterford from St. John's in a fortnight, and even ten days; but from the mother country they are usually from three weeks to a month, and even two months, owing to the prevailing Atlantic winds being westerly, excepting in the early months of the year, towards the vernal equinox, and about the latter end of May and the beginning of June, when they are easterly. The best time for a quick rough passage across from Great Britain is in March, but for one less uncertain as to its termination from boisterous weather, the timid landsman or ladies would prefer the latter end of May, or middle of June. Icebergs keep, however, on the banks until June is over, and require care in the master of the vessel.

Some of the Newfoundland traders from London, Liverpool, Cork, and Waterford, and from Greenock, adapt their cabins for passengers, and are well supplied; but it is always to be recollected that they are all small vessels—few exceeding 150 tons burthen, and many not more than 120.\* Persons desirous of obtaining more instruction in

\* From ten to fifteen pounds is the price of a cabin passage, with everything but good bedding being found.

travelling to visit St. John's, and who can afford the expense, should take Cunard's steam line to Halifax, and thence the mail sailing-vessel to St. John's, which is constant once a fortnight during all the months from March to December. During December, January, February, and March, the mail at present only plies once a month.\*

In some of the best passage vessels the captains carry a thermometer, a barometer, and chronometer, but this is rare: none of them should be without a barometer, however, for in the portion of the Atlantic they have to cross, sudden variations of the weather occur, and it is then that the barometer never fails in its warnings. I have been a good deal at sea in this route, and in the fall of the year the variations of the winds near the banks are inconceivably rapid; so much so that ships are taken aback in a moment by white squalls when going along on a fair wind and fine weather, with all canvass spread. The thermometer should always be a cabin passenger. It indicates immediately the vicinity of ice-fields or bergs, and would save much difficulty.

It is surprising to observe the apathy of masters of trading vessels upon these subjects. We can scarcely expect a small ship to carry an expensive apparatus, and particularly a chronometer, but it is equally clear that the fitters-out of merchantmen traversing the North Atlantic, would

\* This is, of course, expensive, and would probably cost near thirty pounds.

find it to their own interest to supply such instruments as barometers and thermometers, which are not liable to that objection.

On board of a New York packet, not only have the owners supplied the best chronometers, but every vessel carries a capital barometer, so slung as to be in view of the captain, or officer of the watch, at all hours of the day or night, and in addition, most of them have a sympiesometer. Of such use are these indicators, that I recollect, when returning to Canada *via* New York, in the autumn of 1837, we encountered in the Mediator, commanded by that excellent and worthy seaman and man, Captain Champlin, the tail of the West India hurricane of that year, which did so much damage; and although ships around us were dismasted, owing to his vigilance and his instruments, we flew before the storm in comparative safety, and with a very trifling loss. I never recollect such a storm; the sea was fairly blown down, and looked like a mass of white froth, whilst the roar of the wind was absolutely terrific, and the torrents of rain appeared enough to swamp the vessel. We were all prepared for it, although it took us suddenly, from observing the great fluctuation of the barometer and the unusually depressed state of the cup on the surface of the mercury. I believe scarcely anybody expected that the ship would have weathered it—at all events, without serious damage; but she did, and I shall ever have confidence in the barometer—in the North Atlantic, at least.

For want of the barometer, on another occasion, I nearly lost my life and everything else that could attach me to it, for being in an immense frigate-like timber ship, in the month of December, upon the banks, going free with a cloud of canvass, on a sudden the wind veered, and then blowing almost from the zenith, she was taken aback, and reduced almost to a wreck—in fact, nothing but her cargo—her buoyant cargo—saved her; for, as there were no cabins except those upon deck, the whole hull being filled with solid masses of square fir, no water could get in astern. Several of the sailors, as well as myself, were seriously hurt by the falling spars, and the captain, as is usual with men who trust entirely to themselves, and believe, because they have made the voyage fifty times without instruments or apparatus, that the pitcher will never be broken, instantly gave up all for lost, and did not recover himself till the ship did, which was when the fury of the sudden storm had spent itself.

I mention these things, having, in the course of many voyages across the Atlantic, met with many disasters of the like kind, simply because it entails but little extra expense upon owners to supply what no respectable ship should be without. I would therefore recommend every passenger on a long voyage to see, before he embarks, that the crew are sufficient for the vessel, that the master and mate are men well accustomed to the sea, and sober, and that the vessel has a barometer, if she can possibly afford it. Three-fourths of

the accidents at sea arise from the notion prevalent in the merchant-service that long experience of the weather will always prove sufficient; it may, nine times out of ten, but who knows how soon the tenth case will occur?

Mr. Redfield has prepared for the "American Coasting Pilot" a series of meteorological sketches and observations on Atlantic storms, which should be re-published in England, and given to every master and mate of merchant vessels.

His work embraces the rotatory theory of Colonel Reid, of the Royal Engineers, which has attracted so much deserved notice, and which should be condensed into such a form as to be applicable to every person undertaking to navigate that ocean.

If masters of merchantmen, who can well afford the time, in conjunction with their mates, were to enter in their log-books the states of the barometer and thermometer twice a-day, and whenever unusual variations occur—as many, I believe, who are provided with these instruments do—what a mass of meteorological matter, all over the world, would be accumulated!

I mentioned once before the extraordinary snow storm which occurred at St. John's, on the 12th of March 1842, and I applied, having kept a diary of the winds, to the master of the sailing packet from Halifax, which came here directly afterwards, for an extract from his log, for he had a very short passage, although the storm which passed over us was directly in his teeth,

and was enough to have blown him back to his port. He very kindly supplied me with it.

Diary of Wind at Signal Hill, St. John's, Newfoundland.		Log of Packet-brig, Sandwich, Capt. R. Meagher from Halifax to St John's, in five days.	
1842. Day of Month.	Wind.	1842. Day of Month.	Wind.
March 9	W., strong breeze	Mar. 9	{ W. to W.S.W., steady breeze, with small showers of snow at intervals.
10	{ N.E., very strong breeze. }	10	{ Light and variable, inclining to N. at noon shifted sud- denly to N.E., with some frost.
11	{ N.N.W., light wind. }	11	{ Lat. 45° N., Lon. 59° 13' W.; variable from E. to S.E., with sleet at midnight, va- riable back to N.E., with strong breeze.
12 Lat. 47° 33' 30" Lon. 52° 45' 10"	{ E.N.E., storm, with severe snow drift, 4 P.M. northing, continued all night. }	12	{ Lat. 46° 13' N., Lon. 57° 54'. strong gale from N.E. to N., with snow and some frost.
13	{ N.N.W. strong breeze. }	13	{ All the twenty-four hours N. by W., very strong, made the land off Cape Pine at 6 A.M., at midnight off Cape Spear, and in St. John's Bay until daylight.

Thus it appears that this east north-east storm which blew so tremendously here in 47° 30' N. L. and 52° 45' W. Long., was a mere sharp gale from N. E. to N. in Lat. 46° 13', and Lon. 57° 54', and thus Captain Meagher's ship must have been only on the edge of the current of wind. The greatest snow-drift known for some years occurred here, and people could not walk any distance at all in it with safety, although the thermometer was not very low, owing to the violence of the wind and the minuteness of the particles of snow. Had Captain Meagher been

in the same longitude, it would probably have rendered his voyage much longer; as it was, he was  $5^{\circ} 9'$  to the westward of its extreme violent range. It would be curious to trace its effects on the Continent, and its rotation.

But we must not wander into the circle of storms any further than to say that St. John's would be a most excellent station for Government meteorological observations, in connexion with the observatory at Toronto, some fifteen hundred miles west. Then if on the Pacific coast another was to be hereafter established by Great Britain, the world would have a chain of British scientific watchers who, as Mr. Webster said of Great Britain's power, would never sleep. We cannot help quoting the figure of speech, from its beauty as well as its truth, and as coming from an American of high intellectual powers:—

“A power to which Rome, in the height of her glory, was not to be compared—a power which has dotted over the whole surface of the globe with her possessions and military posts—whose morning drum-beat, following the sun, and keeping company with the hours, circles the earth daily with one continuous and unbroken strain of the martial airs of England.”

After this, pardon a little military vanity, gentle reader—I am a British soldier, engaged in keeping up that chain of posts round the world, and with, I am sure, a pardonable pride, glory in having served under that banner which “flouted the breeze of France,” and saw those “very casques t the air at Agincourt.”

This sally has been elicited by observing in a Canadian newspaper, my old friend the "Kingston Chronicle," the extract from an American's journal in travelling in Arabia. There the traveller saw the English red cross streaming at Suez, and he observes, "Not a port have I visited since I left America, that I did not see the flag of England. It was the first flag I saw on entering the waters of France. It was the only one floating in the ancient harbour of Rome, at Citta Vecchia. Again I saw it in the deserted harbour of the Piræus, where once rode the fleets of Themistocles. I first saw the domes and minarets of Constantinople from beneath a cloud of cannon smoke that issued from a British line of battle ship, saluting the Mahomedan ally of Britain. The first object that met my eye on scaling the summit of the pyramids, was the cross of St. George, which some English traveller had planted there. Beyond the cataracts, on the borders of the desert of Nubia, the only sign of civilization that I saw, was the English cross flying from the mast of a traveller's boat. And here again, on the extreme verge of civilization, I stood before this emblem of the universal presence of that nation; and in these lawless regions it gave us a pleasing sense of security to find ourselves so near a representative of that power, beneath whose broad ægis there is protection abroad for the most humble fugitive from violence and oppression."

This is very gratifying, and we trust that

England will never neglect that glory to which science has elevated her, in conjunction with the proud feats of the Union Cross. Let her observatories extend in the same unbroken line round the globe, and let her pursue discovery in all the branches of science with the same ardour with which she pursues commerce and extends her unrivalled dominions, until she can truly adopt the Spaniard's empty boast of "Plus Ultra."

The island of Newfoundland and the opposite coast of Labrador are one Government; but of the latter, I shall at present say no more than that it is unsettled, excepting by a few winter residents, who take care of the fishing posts.

The population of Newfoundland is of course scattered amongst the bays, coves, and harbours in the principal towns and villages.

St. John's, the capital, is in N.L.  $47^{\circ} 33' 33'' 8$ , and  $52^{\circ} 45' 10'' 7$ , W.L. from Greenwich, being  $16^{\circ} 52'$  east of Halifax, the great continental seaport of British America. This observation was made in Fort Townsend, by J. Jones, Master of H.M.S. Hussar. The magnetic variation in 1828 was  $28^{\circ} 0' 47''$  westerly, at Cape Ray, or rather Portaux Basque. Mr. Jones found it  $24^{\circ} 2'$  in 1828 or 1829. An engraved stone in Fort Townsend, fixed in 1828, gives this rather differently, and makes the latitude  $47^{\circ} 33' 42''$ , and longitude  $52^{\circ} 45' 29''$  West, the variation is there  $28^{\circ} 0' 47''$ ; and these data, with the exception of an error of  $47'$  are given in the almanacks. Great dependence may be placed on Mr.

Jones' observations, as they were made with the best instruments, and under the auspices of the Admiralty.

It consists of long, irregular, and in some places very narrow streets, the principal one being called Water-street, which has been much improved of late years, by the addition of stone houses, and some superior shops; but still requires a good deal to raise it above the usual appearances of a sea-port water-side.

There are several lateral streets—one of which, Queen-street, has good stone houses on one side, and is improving. The city stretches along the side of the harbour for nearly two miles; and as the ground rises above 120 feet from the sea, towards the ridge on which its upper portion is built, many of the side streets are very inconveniently steep, and afford excellent Russian mountains of snow and ice for the boys on their break-neck sledges in winter.

Cochrane-street, leading to the water-side, from the Government House, is laid out wide, but not yet much built upon.

Duckworth-street, the next great parallel to Water-street, is also improving, since the last fire, by the addition of stone and brick houses; but altogether, St. John's has not yet arrived at much architectural embellishment, and it will be many years before the thickly crowded little wooden tenements will give way to a better and safer class of buildings, owing to the expense of importing cut stone, brick, and lime.

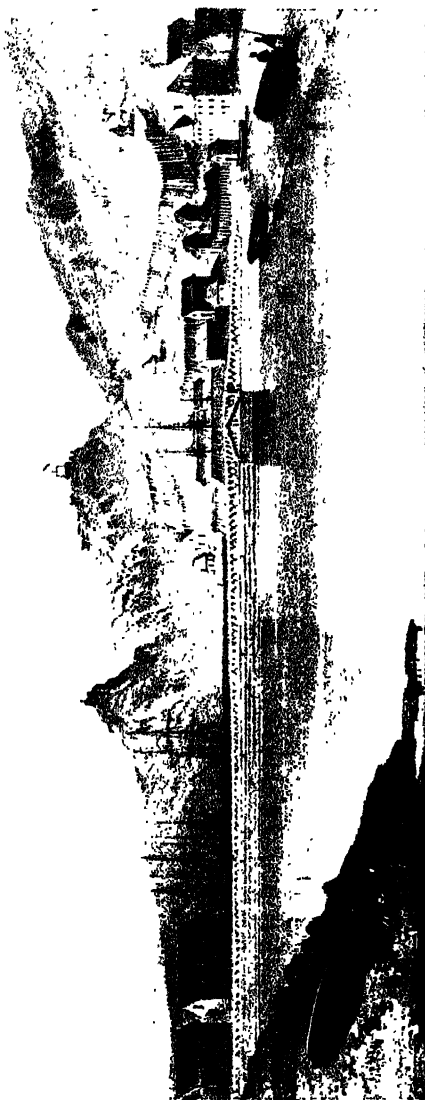
The view on entering the harbour from the ocean, particularly after a very long voyage, is extremely fine. The ship, passing the open roadstead, or one-sided Bay of St. John's, scarcely sees the extremely narrow pass in the high land which she must make, and on entering the Narrows, she has nearly half a mile of intricate navigation before she opens the whole harbour.

On entering, she has, on her right hand, a precipice of sandstone and slate rock, nearly perpendicular, to the height of three hundred feet, above which, almost as steep, frowns the citadel called Signal Hill, a very narrow crest, five hundred and ten feet above the ocean waters. The Narrows themselves are only nine hundred feet across at their sea-face, and diminish to about four; so that from the deck, in passing, one looks up to batteries upon batteries frowning in the sky, or on the edge of perpendicular cliffs, from which a stone might, as it were, be thrown on board.

On the left, the mountain is above six hundred feet in altitude, broken, abrupt, and very picturesque, admitting, however, near the water, of a sort of shoulder of small elevation, bristled with dangerous rocks, and shewing again batteries nearer the water's edge, with a jutting promontory of solid rock, on which the Atlantic ever beats in hollow roar, and on which there is a formidable work, with the harbour-light perched on the top of a vaulted barrack.

As soon as the vessel comes abreast of this





1. The main building of the Government of the State of New York, Albany, N. Y.

work, which is on the left entrance of the Narrows, she is hailed by the artillerymen on duty at the signal-post there; and those merchantmen accustomed to the rules of the place put a board over their quarter, or chalk on it the number of days they have been on their voyage, or their name, if they carry no distinguishing flag, for most of the traders do; and thus, as soon as they are first seen at Cape Spear, which is eight miles off, their name is telegraphed to the principal station on Signal Hill.

After she has passed two-thirds of the Narrows, the town begins to open. In front is old Fort-William; on her right here, a strong water-level battery; and immediately over her, Waldegrave's Battery, half way down the precipice, with the Crow's Nest, a beautiful cone, capping all. In war-time, a chain is thrown across here to the Pancake Rock.

The harbour then opens by a turn at right angles to the westward, and the whole city appears climbing up the side of a hill from Fort William to Fort Townsend, between which are seen the Government House and St. Thomas's church; the former, a large pile of dark stone work, without ornament or relief from trees, and very much resembling a factory, and the latter a singular wooden edifice, with a steeple of a most unique construction, being indescribably ugly and out of proportion.

The harbour, which is a mile and a quarter long to the bridge, and more than a quarter of a mile in width, is one of the finest of its size which

can be named. It is everywhere, excepting towards its termination, of great depth, being upwards of ninety feet in the centre, and affords both safe anchorage, for it is land-locked by high hills, which, on its south side, afford no shore, and on its north, admit a strand, built over with warehouses and wharfs, at which a navy of merchantmen can make fast under the guns of the citadel and forts.

The public buildings in St. John's are as follow:—The Factory, a place for work, to which the poor resort in winter to knit stockings, make nets, and other useful articles, and which has a splendid public ball-room, the only fault of which is, that the ceiling is boarded, and too low, thus rendering it, when filled at public assemblies, and lit up, intensely hot, even in the coldest day in winter.

The British and Newfoundland North American School Society, a very large wooden edifice in front of the factory, in which from two to three hundred children are educated in the best manner.

The Benevolent Irish Society and Orphan School is also enlarging, and will be a very fine wooden building, capable of affording room for some hundreds of scholars, who are now in the course of being educated by this society, a truly benevolent one.

The Public Hospital, very prettily situated near the river head, where a long bridge crosses the harbour.

St. John's Church, a large dilapidated wooden building.

The Roman-catholic chapel, also very large and dilapidated, with the episcopal residence adjoining it, and which is now being replaced by a very fine stone cathedral, which, when finished, will rival or surpass that at Montreal.

The Court House, also an old wooden building, in the centre of the town, with the jail.

In the Court House the Assembly also meets during the session, for want of better accommodation—a source of much inconvenience, as the rooms have to be refitted for the judges and law courts when the Assembly adjourns.

The Convent is a small wooden edifice; and the Congregational and Wesleyan Methodist chapels, although very neat buildings of wood, have nothing particular in their appearance, the former being a long battlemented church, and the latter of very quiet and unpretending exterior.

There are no buildings adapted for the Government Offices, which, except the Surveyor-General's, who has an apology for an office in the shape of a wooden building of one room, are all most inconveniently placed in the Government House.

The Custom House is a small stone edifice, near the Queen's Wharf.

It has been asserted by very respectable persons that the Government House cost 70,000*l.* sterling, which, I must confess, when I first saw it, staggered my belief; and having inquired of the officer through whose hands the payments were made, I found that, like many other stories

emanating from small communities, it was reduced to much less than half that sum, including the furniture. It is well laid out inside, but is far too large for the income attached to the Government, and otherwise inconvenient; and, notwithstanding it commands a splendid view over the city of Signal Hill and the Narrows direct, it is built on a bleak and stormy spot, where it will require more nursing to make trees grow than they are worth.

This building, it is universally allowed, would make a capital parliament house and public offices; and then the Government House might be erected on a less exposed spot, where it would be capable of exterior embellishment by shrubberies and lawns.

Take St. John's altogether, with its 15,000 inhabitants, it has made great progress of late years; and every fire, although entailing much individual loss and suffering, has improved it. It will, by-and-bye, lose all vestige of those zig-zag houses in the streets, where formerly they could not drive a wheelbarrow; and when it is well drained and cleansed, and the roads through it made in every leading thoroughfare, with a proper local police, it will, from the advantages of its site, become as worthy of notice to the eye as it is now to the nation in its wealth and commerce. But then oil-vats must be removed out of it, a fish-market must be established, and the colony of dogs, which puts one in mind of a Turkish town, must not be suffered to lie all

over the footpaths, and to offend the senses in more ways than it is needful to mention.

The environs of the capital are very picturesque, if the traveller takes the trouble of ascending some of the adjacent high hills; and in the account of the amusements of the people, we have mentioned Quiddy Biddy Lake.

Many very pretty little villas, or ornamented cottages, are springing up in every direction. The road by Waterford Bridge to the Bay of Bulls and Petty Harbour, for about four miles, is one of the prettiest, as the river which falls into the harbour runs along under it, and is backed by a lofty chain, called the South Side Hills, which are almost in a state of nature, covered with a low forest; whilst, on the right, are numbers of country houses, farms, and thriving cultivations.

Waterford Bridge itself, at an angle of this road, is a beautiful little object; and the scenery of the river, after passing it, is worth a walk to the Golds; about two miles before arriving at which place, the stream falls suddenly by a great valley, or depression of the ground, upwards of fifty feet, in a succession of pleasing cataracts, into a lovely basin, where it has worn the slate rock, in its winter rage, as though it had been pared and polished. Many of these picturesque waterfalls exist all round St. John's; and the one on which Rennie's Mill is placed, in front of the Government House, would not yield, as a sketch,

or as it is affectedly called, "a bit of scenery," to any other of its size in the world.

The next town in importance to St. John's is Harbour Grace, in Conception Bay, which has been called the Brighton of the island, as it commands a fine view of the sea, which the capital does not, and has a handsome row of houses overlooking the Great Bay, a sea in itself, being fifty miles long, and twenty broad, and whose shores give employment to nearly 25,000 people.

Conception Bay, so named by Cortereal, the Portuguese navigator, in 1561, retains, in the names of its coves and headlands, many of the designations he bestowed. It is the richest and best cultivated part of the settled shores of Newfoundland, and exhibits several neat-looking villages from the sea.

The town of Harbour Grace contains a population said to exceed 6,000, and has several public buildings, such as a stone church, a large Roman-catholic chapel, and two meeting-houses, and furnishes a newspaper. Its harbour is a good one, but there is a spit or bar across its mouth. Here, however, that unusual convenience for the fishery in Newfoundland, a good and fine beach or shore, is found; and altogether Harbour Grace has an English look from the sea.

Near to Harbour Grace is another important town—Carbonier—the harbour of which is not so good, and is famous for its having been the scene of several spirited defences by the in-

habitants against the French ; but the works have gone to ruin. Another newspaper is published here.

The west shore of Conception Bay also contains several other towns of rising importance—such as Brigus, Port de Grave, Bay of Roberts, Harbour Main, Spaniard's Bay—in fact, the whole shore, from Point de Grates to Holyrood, which, at its termination, is thickly settled with fishing villages and stations, the only drawback being, that this coast, exposed to the fury of the Atlantic, particularly in the portion called the North Shore, is subject at times to the ravages of easterly storms ; and, in 1773, Harbour Grace and Carbonier suffered much from one, which threw the fishing craft on shore, upwards of a hundred boats having been lost in one cove, with their unfortunate crews.

The scenery of this shore from a ship is very grand, presenting a continuity of rugged and lofty abrupt precipices and capes ; and several very singular natural curiosities may be observed ; amongst others, a basin, near Port de Grave, in the slate rock, to which there is only the narrowest entrance, but which is bounded by almost perpendicular walls. The difficulty of access, except in boats, renders this scenery less known than it deserves to be ; and whenever the road from Broad Cove, by Kelligrews and Holyrood, round to Carbonier, shall be fairly opened, it being only now a path, the scenery of Conception

Bay will tempt many of the residents of St. John's to visit it.

The eastern shore has no very remarkable settlements: Portugal Cove, an open roadstead, is the largest, and next the two stations enumerated above, through which the road, which is nearly completed from St. John's to Broad Cove, will pass.

A packet plies two or three times a week in summer, from Portugal Cove to Harbour Grace, or Carbonier, and in the fall and early spring a sail-boat goes from Kelligrews to Brigus, but the passage from Portugal Cove is very rough in the late part of the season, and one or two of the schooner packets have been lost. A steam-boat is now in anticipation to ply between these places, and as she will be able to make a harbour where a sailing vessel cannot, much improvement may be foreseen, after she is regularly laid on. Harbour Grace, will then be a place of fashionable resort, and sea-bathing may become in vogue.

The scenery about Portugal Cove well repays the ride of nearly ten miles on a good road from St. John's. It is wildly romantic, and just before entering the village is very beautiful. A succession of lofty hills on each side tower over the road, and shut out everything but their conical or mammillated peaks, covered with wild stunted forest and bold masses of rock, breaking through with a tiny waterfall from the highest, which in winter hangs down in perpendicular ridges of yellow ice.

Turning suddenly out of one of the wildest scenes, you cross a little bridge, and the romantic scattered village hanging over the abrupt rocky shore, with its fish flakes and busy little anchorage, open to the sight, closed in the distance by the shores of Conception Bay, lofty and blue, part of which are concealed by the picturesque Belleisle, whose shape is similar to that of Bonaventure in the drawing, but has its eastern end cut off in a perpendicular wall, some hundreds of feet in height, with a natural arch in it.

The shore here is a succession of jagged and broken rocks, over which appears the pretty waterfall represented in the title page; and here, when I first saw it, the danger of bathing, if there had been a beach, without proper precaution, was manifested by the skin of a large shark, just caught, being spread out to dry. There is a tolerable inn at Portugal Cove, to which travellers and pic-nic parties resort, and a public van or conveyance goes every day to St. John's; the road, being good, and embellished with the most unusual appendages of real milestones, passes the Twenty Mile Pond through a very Canadian scene.

The soil of Belleisle, on which there is a village called Lance Cove, is singularly rich, and unlike that of the neighbouring main. This island is about six miles long, and about three from the Cove. From it, Baccalao Island, which Sebastian Cabot is said to have first made, and called Prima Vista, may be seen, and in clear weather the land of Trinity Bay, sixty miles off,

Baccalao being about twenty-five or thirty.\* There is another small isle or two in Conception Bay, further south, called Little Belleisle and Kelly's Island, the latter producing some good rough building stone which the sea has quarried, and which has been much used in the erection of the new cathedral at St. John's.

Lobsters are found very plentifully at Portugal and Broad Coves, and there is a very pretty little bight near the former, which is possessed of a small beach, where the fear of sharks need not deter the bather; I forget its name, but it is about a mile or two south of Portugal Cove, and is a lovely little spot, worth visiting. I went there on a very hot day last summer; and some of the party being desirous to bathe, seeing a boat in a nook of the basin, which is surrounded by high banks and rocks, with a solitary fishing stage perched on one of them, upon merely mentioning their wish, the boat, containing a fisherman's family, was very good-naturedly so placed under cover of a precipice as to hide it from the bathers, and waited until they were on shore and dressed.

As the weather was very hot, we proposed to the man to take us aboard, as he was bound for Portugal Cove, which he immediately did, and

\* Martin states that the Baccalao birds, a species of *Mergus*, are preserved by the Governor's proclamation on this island, because their cries can be heard far at sea in foggy weather. He has been misinformed: it is because they are sea-marks for the banks and coast.

his daughters entertained us with singing during the passage. For all this civility, in a deeply loaded fishing-boat, with a dozen people to row, they neither sought nor thought of reward, although evidently very poor; and were cheered by the fishermen, in a multitude of little boats, as we passed along, who were engaged in *jigging* for bait in consequence of the gentry being embarked with them.

I mention this merely to shew the native good nature of this inoffensive class, as I feel sure that none of the party were known to them until afterwards, and that the whole affair was looked upon by them in the same way as a common act of kindness amongst each other would be.

North of Conception Bay lies Trinity Bay, between Baccalao Island and Cape Bonavista, on which cape the colony is engaged in the erection of a light-house.

Trinity Bay, besides the town of Trinity, has many settlements, such as Old Perlican, formerly a place of some note, New Perlican, Heart's Content, Heart's Desire, Heart's Delight, Witless Bay, Green Harbour, Deldo Harbour, Collier's Bay, Tickle\* Harbour, Deer Harbour, Random Sound, Bonaventure; but these cannot be visited unless by sea.

Trinity Bay may contain about 6000 people.

Bonavista Bay, north of Trinity Harbour, is

\* This word often occurs in the Newfoundland charts, and means a small safe harbour—whence derived, I cannot say.

less known; but it contains some magnificent inlets of the ocean, and several great fishing stations, the chief place being Bonavista at its eastern end, and Greenspond at its north-eastern extremity, at which there are, on a small island, some very extensive mercantile establishments. The population of this bay may be about five thousand.

North of this great and important bay are several scattered villages and stations in the district and islands of Twilingate, originally Toulingact, and Fogo, and on the main bays and adjacent islets. The population thus scattered amounts to about four thousand. Gander Bay, in Hamilton Sound, has some thriving establishments for the cod and salmon fishery.

North of this, the map must speak for itself, excepting that in Hall's Bay, in the great Bay of Notre Dame, some trappers and hunters live, who cross the island to the Gulf of St. Lawrence in their hunting excursions; and that the coast of Notre Dame Bay, and the interior, with the River of Exploits, were formerly the abodes of the Red Indian—that unhappy race, which has, it is conjectured, either ceased to be, or has emigrated to the Continent.

I shall just remark that at Cape St. John, the northern promontory of this bay, the French shore begins and continues all round the island, until Cape Ray, at the entrance of the St. Lawrence.

The French occupy, by treaty, the Isles of Miguelon, Langley, and St. Pierre, and claim an

exclusive control over the coast above-mentioned; but their right of fishing on the south shore is limited to one half of the channel between these islands and the main land. They possess, therefore, all the western, all the northern, and one half of the eastern shores of Newfoundland, with a portion of the southern seas of this ancient British Colony. Notwithstanding all the treaties, their resident population amounts, it is said to upwards of twelve thousand, and as they are nearly all engaged in a most lucrative fishery, they receive every encouragement from their government, are registered as seamen, and, in fact, constitute to France what Newfoundland was before the last war to England, the nursery for her seamen.

Very little is known of the French coast or of the French settlers; the policy of France excludes them from our ports, and the part of the island near or on which they dwell, is situated beyond the thinnest portion of our population. I shall, therefore, not dwell upon it, or upon them, but content myself with saying that Ingornachouix and Bonne Bay are fine harbours on the N. W. shore.\*

Besides the French, there are some few Indians of the Micmac tribe, who came originally from Nova Scotia, and had leave to settle in St.

\* At the Bay of Islands is a very fine river, called the Humber, which has been traced for one hundred and fourteen miles to the N.W., almost parallel to the coast, and issues from a cape about ten leagues in length. It is, however, like the river St. George, barred with rapids.

George's Bay\* and along the Humber River. They have also settled at Little Barrysway, or Barra-chois, near the Burgeo Islands, on the south coast, and amount altogether to above two hundred, but their numbers are not accurately known. They employ themselves in hunting in the interior, and in the salmon fishery, and their manners and customs are much the same as those of the Continent, whence they came, living in wigwams, and depending on the fishery and the chase for subsistence. They are never seen at St. John's. There are British settlers on the west coast at the Bay of Islands, a great timber station, and in St. George's Bay.

The south coast of Newfoundland is filling up very fast with settlers from Cape Ray to Placentia Bay, and there is a large mercantile establishment at Harbour Britain. At the Burgeo Islands, there are six hundred and fifty inhabitants, and Hermitage Bay is rapidly settling. The salmon fishery on this coast is extensive, and it is the scene of the Newfoundland whaling. Cape Ray, the western end of Newfoundland, and entrance of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is in  $47^{\circ} 36' 49''$  N. L., and  $59^{\circ} 21'$  W. L., at its extreme point.

Proceeding eastward along the south shore, after passing the well-defined harbour of Port aux Basque, in which Rhode Island has been ascertained

\* Port-au-Port is a magnificent double harbour, almost connected with the Great Bay of St. George, by a very narrow isthmus, in which is a small lake.

to be in  $47^{\circ} 34' 11''$  N. L., and  $59^{\circ} 10' 39''$  W. L., we come to the electoral district of Fortune Bay, which has a scattered population of three thousand. Fortune, Great Beach, and Lamelin, on the coast opposite St. Pierre, are villages of from one to four hundred people, and there are many other stations in the bay. At Harbour Britain, in this bay, is a very extensive establishment for cod, salmon, and whale fishing. The humpback and finner whale are caught, or rather taken by whale-boats, in vast numbers, and yield from three to eight tons of oil each.

Burin is the next district, with a population of two thousand five hundred, scattered along the west shore of Placentia Bay, in Burin, Mortier, Audierac, etc. The Western Cape of Placentia Bay, Cape Chapeau Rouge, is, at Blue Beach Point, from which the cape is south  $22''$ , east  $1\frac{1}{4}$  miles,  $46^{\circ} 54' 16''$  N. L., and  $55^{\circ} 28' 40'' 7$ , W. L.; at Pointe Verde is in  $47^{\circ} 13' 51'' 1$ , N. L., and  $54^{\circ} 6' 16'' 7$ , W. L.

The district of Placentia, once the first in the island, is now reduced to a population of about three thousand; of which Placentia is the chief place, but now little more than a mere village, with the vestiges of its ancient fortifications. It still has a lieutenant-governor who, however, holds a merely nominal title; but as soon as the road now opening from St. John's is finished, it will again hold up its head, and assert its real claims to notice, being a very important position. Its harbour, accessible only for one ship at a time, can contain one hundred and fifty in safety; and here there is a mag-

nificent strand, or beach, between two hills, whereon sixty vessels can dry and cure their fish at the same time. Placentia Bay abounds with cod, herrings, salmon, etc. The islands are numerous and for the most part inhabited, particularly Marasheen.

Passing Placentia Bay and the horrid Scylla and Charybdis of St. Shott's and Cape Pine, where nearly all the fatal shipwrecks on the coasts occur, owing to the indraught of the Great Bays near them, we arrive at the district of St. Mary's and Trepassey, which have a population, chiefly confined to two towns of the same name, of about one thousand.

St. Mary's Bay has several extensive cod fishing establishments, and salmon rivers. One of the advantages of this bay is, with the adjacent one of Colinet, its interior communications, as the distance from Salmonier River to Conception Bay is only ten miles, and from Colinet to Trinity Bay only eight, thus connecting all the isthmus of Avalon. Trepassey is a very good harbour on its eastern side, and is well cultivated, and likely to be of much importance when Cape Pine lighthouse is built. Point Powles, Trepassey, is in 46° 43' 11" 8, N. L., and in 53° 27' W. L.

A lighthouse is in contemplation by the British government near Cape Pine.\*

\* After passing Trepassey, there is a long reach of headlands and coves from French Mistaken Point to Cape Race, and all along these coasts a profitable shore fishery is carried on.

With respect to a light-house on the south-east coast,

The next district is the ancient one of Ferry-land, where Lord Baltimore fixed his residence,

opinions are divided between Cape Race and Cape Pine. Cape Race is the south-east point of Newfoundland, being in  $46^{\circ} 40' 27''$  N.L. and in  $53^{\circ} 8' 6''$  W.L.; and Cape Pine, or South Cape Freels, close to it, the southern point of the island, being two minutes more to the southward, and Cape Pine  $31^{\circ} 0' 2''$  to the westward.

It would be useless to enter into a long argument here, about this controversy, as the Government at home are in possession of the case; but I believe both points require a light—one for the trade from Europe to Canada, and the other from Canada to Europe, as along this whole coast are a dangerous current and indraught, and just beyond Cape Pine is the dreaded St. Shott's Bay, where more vessels have been, as it were, sucked in and lost, than on any other part of the coast. Cape Pine should, I think, be built first, and then Cape Race light-house. The trade would be vastly benefited thereby; and if another be added at Cape Ray, the whole southern coast of Newfoundland will be well lit, as the French have an intermediate one at Pierre's. I will not, however, tire the reader's patience on this subject, as it is a very professional one; but merely add, that off this part of the shore are the dangerous rocks in the Atlantic, called the Virgin Rocks, seldom seen, but fatal if met with unknown. Mr. Jones, master of H.M.S. Hussar, found their bearings to be  $46^{\circ} 26' 15'' 3$  N.L., and  $52^{\circ} 55' 33''$  W.L., and as they are, next to Sable Island, the most terrible of all in this part of the Atlantic, we shall annex extracts from different accounts respecting them.

“ Virgin Rocks.—Geographical position. Observed with a Circle, (by Worthington and Allan,) Admiralty Chronometer (by Grayhurst and Harvey), No. 89, and Chronometer (by Baraud), No. 502, well regulated, in H. M. S. Hussar, by Master J. Jones :—

Latitude .....  $46^{\circ} 26' 15.3''$  N.

Longitude from Greenwich  $50^{\circ} 56' 35''$  W.

“ The above are the mean of a series of observations

and which in his day was called the seat of the Terra Novan muse. No vestiges of his domain now exist, and the population of the town of

made during 48 hours. The Inspector lay at anchor 200 yards N.E. of the shoalest part of the Virgin Rocks; the horizon was perfectly defined, and the weather every way favourable for determining their position.

“The rocks extend in an irregular chain, or cluster, S.W. by W., and N.E. by E. 800 yards; the breadth varying from 200 to 300 yards. The least water on a white rock in  $4\frac{1}{2}$  fathoms, with from 5 to  $6\frac{1}{2}$  fathoms, about 100 yards all round it, the bottom distinctly visible. Towards the extremities of the shoal the soundings are from 7 to 9 fathoms on detached rocks, with deep water between them; the current setting a mile an hour to the W.S.W., with a confused cross swell. To the S.E., S., S.W., W., and W.N.W. of the shoal, the water deepens gradually to 30 fathoms, half a mile distant; to the N.W., N., and N.E., one-third of a mile, and to the E.N.E., E., and E.S.E. a mile.

“The bank upon which the shoal is situated extends E. by N. and W. by S. four miles and a quarter; and two miles and three quarters across its broadest part, with regular soundings of from 28 to 30 fathoms, until they suddenly deepen on its outer edge to 39 and 43 fathoms.”

“Lieut. Bishop, commanding H.M. Gun-brig, Manly, writes, 9th July, 1829:—

“The bottom was repeatedly seen by the officers of both ships, in from 7 to  $4\frac{1}{2}$  fathoms, apparently of a very white rock, with large particles of sea-weed on the sand around them. In addition to this, on the morning of the 7th, about 2 A.M., when riding with a whole cable and a heavy sea, I observed such violent breakers near the brig as to cause me to batten down the hatches; and I am of opinion that, had there been a little more wind, no vessel could have passed over that spot, or remained there with safety.”

Ferryland, of the villages of Aquaforte, Fermense, Renewes, Cape Broyle, and other fishing stations, does not exceed two thousand.

Cape Broyle is a very good harbour when once in—it is in  $47^{\circ} 2' 19'' 8$ , N. L., and  $52^{\circ} 55' 33''$  W. L., at its south point.

The Bay of Bulls (Baie des Boules) is the succeeding district. The harbour of that name is about twenty-four miles by land from St. John's, along a very indifferent road, and, with the adjacent stations of Witless Bay, Memables, etc., contains about 2000 inhabitants, and adjoins St. John's.

But the returns have been so inaccurate, and the divisions so ill-defined, that we can only guess from collateral circumstances at the population of the electoral districts now, which, for the sake of perspicuity only, will be recapitulated:—

St. John's	-	-	-	-	-	25,000
Conception Bay	-	-	-	-	-	30,000
Trinity Bay	-	-	-	-	-	6,000
Bonavista Bay	-	-	-	-	-	5,000
Twillingate and Fogo	-	-	-	-	-	4,000
Bay of Bulls	-	-	-	-	-	2,000
Ferryland	-	-	-	-	-	2,000
Trepassey and St. Mary's	-	-	-	-	-	1,000
Placentia	-	-	-	-	-	3,000
Burin	-	-	-	-	-	2,500
Fortune Bay	-	-	-	-	-	3,000
On the south shore, from Fortune Bay to						
Cape Ray and St. George's Bay, British settlers	-	-	-	-	-	1,500
Micmac Indians at Barachois and Saint George's Bay	-	-	-	-	-	200
						<hr/> 85,200

I believe Conception Bay will be found to contain more than 30,000, and therefore a new census would give, with the natural increase since the last, a much larger total, and, perhaps, not far short of 100,000; for on the north-east shore there are many British subjects living in remote and difficult places of access.

It appears to me to be a great desideratum that the island should be divided into districts and townships, upon the Canadian plan, at once; for there is nothing like certainty whenever settlement shall really commence; and that it will on the west coast force itself, is evident from the nature of the soil, and the rapid increase on the Indian lands at St. George's Bay, where there are now not less than four or five hundred whites located, all British subjects. The strides which the religious bodies are making to open a communication with all these settlers will also obtain for us a knowledge of the localities which we do not now possess. The success of the boat whale-fishery in Fortune Bay, will also tend to settle that coast, which, as it abounds with salmon and cod, has hitherto been in the hands of the French, or Americans.

For the rest of the topographic information, which is very scanty, we must refer to the map, on which the existing roads are dotted, but it must be borne in mind that these, excepting in the immediate neighbourhood of St. John's, or of Harbour Grace and Carbonier, are all merely in embryo.

## CONCLUSION—RED INDIANS.

It will be expected by the British reader that a work on Newfoundland should afford some insight into the destiny of the Red Indian; but I am sorry to say, I cannot satisfy this expectation; none have been seen of late even by the trappers and hunters, by the Micmacs, or by the Esquimaux of Labrador; and, unless they are in the fastnesses of the centre of the island, the race has emigrated, or become extinct.

To satisfy, however, the natural curiosity which must exist at home respecting this unfortunate people, I shall briefly relate all that can now be gathered respecting them.

The Bœothic, or Red Indian of Newfoundland, so named from his habit of painting his skin with ochre, it is conjectured here, has been exterminated. I remember, in 1831, when I had the honour of accompanying the Governor-general of Canada, Lord Aylmer, in an exploratory voyage round the Gulf of St. Lawrence, that the Indians, a sort of half Esquimaux, who were employed in the salmon fisheries of the King's Ports, on the Labrador shore, were very much agitated and alarmed in the Bay of the Seven Islands, by the sudden appearance of a fierce-looking people amongst them, of whom they had neither knowledge nor tradition, and who were totally different from the warlike mountaineer, or montagnards of the interior, who come occasionally to barter at the posts.

I believe the strangers themselves were as much alarmed at seeing the very unusual circumstance of three small ships of war riding in that splendid basin, and finding that the part of the shore they had arrived at was occupied by a large storehouse and a dwelling, with some tents; for, after frightening the others out of their wits, they disappeared as suddenly as they came.

These were, very possibly, the poor disinherited Red Men, who, it had been the disgraceful practice of the ruder hunters, furriers, and settlers in Newfoundland, to hunt, fire at, and slaughter, wherever they could find them, treating these rightful lords of the soil as they would the bears and wolves, and with just as little remorse.

It is not my province here to enter at large upon the singular history of the Red Indian of Newfoundland, or of the systematic hunting enclosures of vast extent, which he had established and maintained. He has either entirely or nearly passed away, because he sternly refused to hold communion with the white invader. His history is, indeed, a most melancholy one. Gentle and mild, when first seen by Europeans, he no sooner gave way to his natural desire to obtain some of their dazzling riches, than he became an object of diabolical revenge.

For three centuries the unhappy wretches have been hunted and driven. The Micmac and the Esquimaux have been called in to aid in the extermination of the race; and if the poor wanderer has occasionally retaliated, and borne an irrecon-

cilable hatred to his oppressors, he has merely followed the dictates of untutored nature. But the butchery in cold blood which has been practised by the whites upon his race, is due to another and a most awful account.

The first mention of the Newfoundland Indian is to be found in the narratives of the early discoverers which are preserved in the Hackluyt collection, and the best is that of Hayes, and which is confirmed by the work of Whitbourne. Both these and all the other occasional writers uniformly say, that the Red Indian was a harmless and very inoffensive person, but somewhat given to appropriate to himself the immense riches of iron, cordage, and unknown articles, which tempted him beyond the resistance of the small share of reason which had been developed in his nature.

Hayes says, "In the south parts we found no inhabitants, which, by all likelihood, have abandoned these coastes, the same being so much frequented by Christians. But in the north are sauaiges altogether harmlesse."

This was in about 1583, Hayes having been second in command to Sir Humfrey Gilbert. I have already related the previous scanty notices of earlier times by the first discoverers.\*

\* Cabot saw them, dressed in skins, and painted with red ochre. Jaques Cartier, in 1534, describes them "as of good size, wearing their hair in a bunch on the top of their heads, and adorned with feathers." In 1574, Frobisher sent five sailors ashore with some who visited him; the men never returned, but he took one Indian to England, who died soon afterwards.

Whitbourne, in 1622, gives a much fuller account to King James, for in page 2 of his now very rare book, he says, "The naturall inhabitants of the countrey, as they are but few in number, so are they something rude and sauage people, hauing neither knowledge of God, nor liuing vnder any kinde of ciuill gouernement. In their habits, customes, and manners, they resemble the Indians of the Continent, from whence (I suppose) they came; they liue altogether in the north and west part of the countrey, which is seldome frequented by the English, but the French and Biscaines (who resort thither yeerley for the whale-fishing, and also for the cod-fish) report them to be an ingenious and tractable people (being well vsed); they are ready to assist them with great labour and patience in the killing, cutting, and boyling of whales; and making the traine oyle, without expectation of other reward than a little bread, or some such small hire."

And, in page 4, describing Trinity Harbour, he says again, "It is neere vnto a great bay lying on the north side of it, called the Bay of Flowers; to which place no shippes repair to fish, partly in regard of sundry rocks and ledges lying euen with the water, and full of danger; but chiefly (as I conjecture) because the sauage people of the countrey do there inhabite; many of them secretly euery yeere, come into Trinity Bay and Harbour in the night-time, purposely to steale sailes, lines, hatchets, hookes, kniues, and such like."

He then beseeches King James to order some measures for the temporal and spiritual welfare of these heathens in a strain of great fervour, "to rear vp and advance to so noble, so pious, and so Christian a building."

Alas! instead of this, which might have been easily achieved, their simple appropriations of matters to them inconceivably precious, were soon punished as crimes of the deepest dye, by an unsparing war of extermination carried on even to the present generation by barbarians more savage than themselves.

Describing Trepassey, on the south coast, as an excellent port, Whitbourne further observes that, owing to the conformation of the country, it is not far from Trinity Bay, and if it were to be inhabited "by some of your Majistie's subiects, I see no reason to the contrary, but that a speedy and moore certaine knowledge might be had of the countrey, by reason these sauage people are so neere; who being politikely and gently handled, much good might bee wrought upon them: for I haue had apparant proofes of their ingenuous and subtle dispositions, and that they are a people full of quicke and lively apprehensions."

In summing up his reasons for urging upon the king a permanent settlement in Newfoundland, he commences by observing, "It is most certaine, that by a plantation there, and by that meanes only, the poore mis-beleeuing inhabitants of that countrey may be reduced from barbarism to the knowledge of God, and the light of his

truth, and to a ciuill and regular kinde of life and gouernement."

He very justly adds, we should always bear in mind that "euen we ourselues were once as blinde as they are in the knowledge and worship of our Creator, and as rude and sauage in our liues and manners."

In page 32, he asserts, that the "sauage people, after such time as our countrey men came from thence, neither hurt nor burn anything of theirs that they leave behind them," although our own fishermen in disputing about places, do not thus spare each other's property in stages, or the woods.

In the conclusion of his book, which is not paged throughout, is an account of their manner of living, which may be found in Chappel's work on Newfoundland, and which proves that their habits were like those of the Canadian Indians, as they constructed canoes with the bark of birch trees,\* which they paid with gum and turpentine. Their cooking utensils were made of the bark of the fir and the spruce, which were so well constructed as to bear the heat of boiling water;

\* The birch is an invaluable tree in North America. Its beautiful bark furnishes the Indian with his canoes, baskets, and drinking vessels: and from it, the white kind, *betula alba*, an antiscorbutic, deobstruent, and diuretic wine, is made by the settler, by merely cutting to the pith, under some large branch, keeping the wound open by a splinter, and hanging a bottle under it. A large tree produces two or three gallons of birch wine.

they used the yolks of the sea-fowl's eggs by first boiling them hard, and then drying and reducing them to powder, with which they seasoned their broths of wild fowl or fish. They dressed the skins of deer, beavers, otters, bears, and seals excellently, and always possessed a large store of them and of red ochre, with which they painted themselves, and their canoes and utensils. In their tents, three of which were surprised, and the natives found preparing food, was a large stock of dried meat; and as soon as a musket was pointed at them by one of three sailors of a fishing vessel from Tapson, in Devonshire, which was at anchor in the Harbour of Heart's Ease, on the north shore of Trinity Bay, and which had been robbed in the night by the Indians, they ran off into the woods naked and without any clothing but hats made of seal-skin, fashioned like those of the Europeans, and garnished with narrow bands of white shells.

The retaliation was complete, for the poor naked savages were deprived of their three canoes, their dried flesh, their skins, their egg-powder, targets, bows and arrows, much fine red ochre, and many other things, to them indispensable, and not to be replaced without infinite labour.

Whitbourne, very characteristically for a rough sailor, says he had brought to him the best "cannon, bowes and arrowes, and diuers of their skins, and many other artificiall things, worth the noting, which may seeme to inuite us to endeauour to finde out some other good trades with them."

For this he has been blamed by Chappell rather

strongly, but we should recollect that even in our own days the temptation to possess the curiosities of distant and unknown races, has been too strong for a sense of virtue to combat; and that in many instances it has been very difficult for the most experienced commanders to restrain their men from the plunder of savage huts, and even from wilfully shooting the beings they consider as little superior to wild beasts.

As soon as the Red Indian began to appropriate his invader's goods, so soon did his invader use the strong arm against him; and for two hundred and fifty years he has been considered as the fair game of the hunter, the furrier, and the rude northern settlers, until his being is now a mystery, or of the things that were.

They inhabited, from the first settlement of Newfoundland, chiefly the north, north-eastern, and north-western parts of the island, in the neighbourhood of the Fogo and Twilingate Islands, and about White Bay and the interior, making latterly sudden incursions to the fishing stations, and sparing no whites they could surprise. Chappell says, they were so dexterous that he was told by an old fisherman in St. George's Bay, that he, with a party, had once got near enough to some of them to hear their voices; but upon rushing towards them, they found "the natives gone, their fire extinguished, the embers scattered in the woods, and dry leaves strewed over the ashes," and such was the state of fear in which they existed, that the very sight of a pointed musket, or fire-arm, was sufficient to appal them.

It is said, they had not any dogs, which is rather singular, considering that the country is well furnished with wolves,\* and that it has been ascertained that a native breed of dogs existed in Labrador.

\* Whilst writing the above, an account has just been received of a wolf which committed great depredations near the capital, and which, although it had lost a leg in a trap, travelled over the snow to Collier's Harbour, in Conception Bay, fifty or sixty miles, to elude pursuit, and was found many miles further in the act of watching some sheep which were confined in a poor woman's shed.

This formidable animal was of the following dimensions

	Feet.	Inches.
From muzzle to insertion of tail - - -	5	0
Length of tail - - - - -	1	6
Height to top of fore shoulder - - -	2	9
Ditto to top of haunch - - - - -	2	8
Length of lower jaw - - - - -	0	9
Opening of jaws when spread - - -	0	9

His colour was a pure silver grey (very rare) and his skin would have been valuable if it had not been pierced with many swan-shot. He stood three discharges by the hunters who killed him, and exhibited the utmost ferocity to the last, receiving fifty-six shots. His skin was stuffed and preserved for Mr. Pinsent, a magistrate at Brigus, who was authorized to pay the killer *5*l.**, being the colonial premium for a dead wolf. He had killed several cows, sheep, goats, &c., near St. John's, after he lost his leg; and after arriving at the head of Conception Bay, across an almost continued forest, he killed a cow at Broad Cove Gastors, with several sheep, goats, and fowls, having been repeatedly seen by the poor people, from the doors of their tilts, in the woods, and seizing the smaller animals close to them. He was at last destroyed by three men, who tracked him to Turk's Gut, about four miles from Brigus.

It has been said that these people were naturally warlike, and that they accounted for their origin by saying they were created by the Great Spirit out of arrows stuck in the ground, and that they went to a far country after death to make merry with their friends.

Government, as we have said, in the general history of the island, made several humane but fruitless attempts to stop the war of extermination against this devoted race, but owing to the scattered nature of the settlements, and the rude unlettered minds of the fur hunters, always without the least effect.

In 1760, an attempt was made by Scott, a master of a ship, to open a communication with them. He went from St. John's to the Bay of Exploits, where he built a small fort. Here he had an interview with them, but advancing unarmed, he was murdered, with five of his men, and the rest fled to their vessel, carrying off one of their comrades, whose body was covered with arrows, from which he died.

At length the Government offered rewards for the capture of a Red Indian, or Bœothic, as they called themselves; and, in 1804, a female, who was paddling in her canoe towards a small island for birds' eggs, was taken by a fisherman, of the name of Cull, and brought to St. John's, where she was kindly treated by the Admiral, afterwards Lord Gambier, and sent back with presents to her tribe, but what became of her is not well known. She admired the epaulettes of the officers

more than anything that was shewn her, and would never part with her own fur dress, although clothed handsomely.

Dr. Chapell, in his work, published in 1812, having observed that it was said that this woman had been made away with on account of the value of the presents, which amounted to an hundred pounds, Mr. Cormack told Mr. M'Gregor, in 1827, that if Cull could catch the author of that book within the reach of his long duck-gun, he would be as dead as any of the Red Indians that Cull had often shot.\*

What became of the poor creature, who was at the tender mercy of such a man, has never been ascertained, but Mr. M'Gregor thinks she never reached her tribe, and Mr. Cormack is of the same opinion.

She was stained, both body and hair, of a red colour, as it was supposed, from the juice of the alder, and was not very uneasy in her new situation, when in the presence of her own sex only, but would not permit any men to approach her, except her enslaver, to whom (which speaks volumes for him) she was ever gentle and affectionate.

In 1809, another attempt was made under the immediate auspices of the Governor-Admiral Holloway, when Lieut. Spratt, of the Royal Navy, was sent to Exploits Bay with a painting, representing officers of the navy shaking hands

\* M'Gregor's *British America*, vol. i. p. 256.

with an Indian chief, and a party of seamen laying parcels of presents at his feet; Indians presenting furs, and a white and a red woman looking at their respective children, with a sailor courting an Indian girl. But none of the tribe were found.

Sir Thomas Duckworth, in 1810, published a new Proclamation for the Protection of the Red Indians, and soon afterwards, Lieut. Buchan, of the Royal Navy, was sent to the River of Exploits with orders to winter there, and to offer a communication with them.

Having met them, he left two marines, as hostages, until he could return with presents to the *dépôt*, from which he took two natives. But he did not return so soon as he expected; and when he did, found his marines headless. It was afterwards ascertained that they thought he had gone for reinforcements; that all the Beothics, excepting the party he met, were at the Grand Lake to the westward; and that rather than be made prisoners, they broke up their encampments, and killed the hostages for fear of discovery. The men thus murdered were of unexceptionable character, and fell victims to the fear and treachery of the Red Men, who managed so well that even their two hostages escaped.

In 1811, a reward of a hundred pounds was offered to any person who should bring about a friendly understanding with the Red Indians.

In 1819, another female was taken by a party of furriers, who met two men and a woman on

the ice in Red Indian Lake. The woman was secured, but her husband and the other savage resisting, they were both shot. Her husband was a fine-looking Indian, six feet high. They took the woman to St. John's, having first named her Mary March, from the month in which she was taken.

She lived all the rest of the year at St. John's, and was sent back to the River of Exploits in the ensuing winter, under the care of Captain Buchan, with presents to her tribe; but she had contracted sickness, and died on board. Her body was wrapped in linen, placed in a coffin, and left on the margin of a pond, or lake, where it was likely it would be found, as it was, by her people, who conveyed it to their place for the dead, where it was found several years afterwards, by Mr. Cormack, lying beside that of her ill-fated husband.

Nothing was seen or heard of this people again until the winter of 1823, when a party of them was seen on the ice in New Bay, an inlet of the Great Bay of Notre Dame, by some furriers. On the first meeting, these amiable whites shot a man and woman, who were approaching them apparently for food. The man was first killed, and the woman, in despair, remained a calm victim. Mr. Cormack was told these facts by the very barbarian who shot her.\*

Three other women afterwards gave themselves

\* M'Gregor, vol. i. p. 259.

up, and one was brought to the capital. They were all three in a starving condition; and what became of the other two does not very clearly appear. Shanandithit, the one brought to St. John's, was very kindly treated there, and lived six years, dying in the hospital, in 1829, of a pulmonary disease, to which, it appeared from her communications, her tribe were subject. I have seen a miniature of this female, which, without being handsome, shews a pleasing countenance, not unlike, in its expression, to those of the Canadian tribes — round, with prominent cheek-bones, somewhat sunken eyes, and small nose. She lived in Mr. Cormack's house until he left the colony, and then in that of the Attorney-General, Mr. Simms, by whom she was most kindly attended to. But it appears consumption was the fatal disease of her nation, which had carried off Mary March, and thus the hope of making her the means of redeeming the cruelties which had been practised upon her people was lost.

It is conjectured that in 1760 the Red Indians were not more than two hundred in number; so that the chance of finding even a single family now in Newfoundland is very small indeed.

In 1827, a society was formed in St. John's, called the Bœothic Society for the Civilization of the Native Savages, and an expedition undertaken by Mr. Cormack, with three Indians, across their country, as already mentioned, to find them, but without success.

It appears from the indefatigable research of

that gentleman, who twice crossed the island in different directions, and had attained every available knowledge of the Red Indian, that the exterminating war against that unhappy people was carried to its height about one hundred and seventy years ago by the French. Until then they had been a large and powerful tribe, and had made an alliance with the Micmacs; but falling under the displeasure of the French authorities, a reward was offered for the heads or persons of some of the chiefs. Two heads were obtained by the Micmacs, who were cruelly retaliated on by the Bœothics, and the latter retired to the interior. The Micmacs, having learned the use of fire-arms from the Europeans, had a decided advantage in the bloody wars that followed, and the Red Indian was hunted like a beast of prey ever afterwards both by Micmac and by Whites. Shanandithit declared that so exasperated were her people against the white men, that she dared not return to her home after having once held converse with them.

Mr. Cormack, determined to relieve their necessities and to induce them to make peace, set out for the Bay of Exploits with three Indians, a Canadian of the Abenaki nation, an old mountaineer of the Labrador, and a young active Micmac born in Newfoundland. He entered the country at the inlet called the North Arm, at the mouth of the River of Exploits, and took a north-west course to Hall's Bay, in the Bay of Notre Dame, across the extremities of New Bay, Badger Bay, Seal Bay,

etc., through an uninterrupted hilly forest, which he accomplished in eight days.

This was across the usual summer paths of the Red Indian country to the residences near the shores; and at the east end of Badger Bay, at Great Lake, at a portage, or carrying place for canoes, known as the Indian Path, he fell in with the remains of an encampment of the preceding year, where there was a canoe rest, or elevated frame, to support a canoe from injury—as it was always their custom, when coming from the interior to the sea, to leave one in case of accident until their return. This rest, and the roots of plants used to fasten it, with daubs of red ochre quite fresh, and a spear handle, recently made and painted red, parts of old canoes and fragments of skin dresses, etc., strewed about, shewed that this was a regular station. For some distance, too, the bark of the spruce pine, (*pinus balsamifera*,) called var in Newfoundland, probably from a west of England corruption of fir, was taken off, it being one of the customs of the Bœothics to use the inner bark as food. Fresh cuts of axes in the trees, evidently not a year old, were also observed, with other encouraging signs.

Here the sea was not more than eight miles to the north east, and a chain of lakes extended westerly and southerly, which discharged their waters into the river of Exploits, about thirty miles from its mouth, thus favouring a route for the Red Indian by water to the interior, and an-

other path, to the eastward, led to the lakes near New Bay. Here the remains of a village were observed, consisting of eight or ten winter mamateehs, or wigwams, of large size, calculated to contain from eighteen to twenty people each, with the vestiges of numerous summer tents or wigwams.

One of the singularities of these dwellings is, that although conical, and the frame made of poles, covered with skins or birch bark, like those of the Canadians, each had small cavities dug in the earth and lined with moss, or the soft branches of trees, by which it is conjectured that the natives slept in a sitting posture. The tender twigs of the sapin in Canada, as I have often experienced, make a pleasant and really luxurious bed, their fragrant smell, and the softness, to a wearied traveller, are really delightful. It is always the first care of the Indian, or Canadian *voyageur*, to supply them at the conclusion of a day's journey if they are to be had, or to procure the best substitute from other plants.

Besides this peculiarity, every winter wigwam had, close by it, a small square or oblong pit, about four feet deep, generally lined with birch bark, in which the winter stores and provisions were laid up; and the village had also a vapour bath. This consisted of an hemispherical frame-work closely covered with skins; previously to placing which, a number of large stones were heated by a pile of fuel around them, and when sufficiently hot, the ashes were cleared away, and water be-

ing poured upon them, the framed dome was placed over the steam, and the patient crept under, taking a birch bark bucket of water and a small bark dish, so as to enable him to raise the steam at pleasure.

The travellers proceeded then to Hell's Bay, where three English families of furriers were settled, and there are still one or two there; and, after sleeping one night in a house, struck again into the interior to the westward.

Mr. Cormack says that he could obtain no information from these people about the remnant of the tribe, as they, of course, were interested in their destruction. A furrier, who lives there now, penetrates to the Grand Pond every season, and comes to St. John's to sell his furs once a year; but it is said, although he is a respectable man, he has also no information to afford; and, in fact, his explorations are on the ice and snow in winter, so that if any Indians are near his hunting, or rather trapping, grounds, they can easily avoid his people, well knowing that the fur-hunters have been their most desperate enemies.

The party proceeded for five days to the high lands south of the Great White Bay, and then came in sight of the mountains near the Bay of Islands on the west coast of Newfoundland. Marshy, or flat ground, extended for thirty miles southerly toward the Red Indian Lake. Winter was setting in, the deer were migrating to the southward, and many of the small ponds began to be solid enough to bear walking over; and as

they had no provisions but such as their guns could obtain, it was decided to remain only two days, observing, from this high station, if the smoke from any camps could be traced, as the hills commanded a view in every direction.

On the borders of these hills, in the low country, where the deer passes, or places where those animals, on which the Red Indian chiefly depended for food and clothing, passed during their annual migrations from the rugged dreary cold mountains of the north, to the mild, low, mossy and sheltered valleys and woody parts of the interior and south of the island: here the Indians always watched their prey at the extreme ends of, and straits in, many of the large lakes, the bottoms of ravines between high rugged mountains, fords, in rivers, etc., where they usually killed them with certainty. No signs were, however, observed, and therefore it was determined at once to descend, and cross the half frozen levels, to the Red Indian lake.

This toilsome and painful journey took them ten days to perform, plunging in mud and water, in ice and low swampy woods; but as they approached the lake, they saw that man had at all events been there, the woods being destroyed by fire, in a space through which they journeyed for the last two days.

The first sight of this splendid sheet of water, says Mr. Cormack, struck them with awe and admiration, on descending the hills which bounded

its northern extremity. They were the first strangers who had seen it in an unfrozen state, for only three parties had preceded them, and that in the depth of winter, and these had reached it by the river of Exploits.

The view was grand, solemn, and majestic—an unbroken sheet of water, reaching far beyond the limits of vision, and perfectly placid, with not a canoe to ruffle its visible surface. Anxiety also lent its share to their emotions. They were in the known home of savages, who never spared the white man, or the Indian not of their race; but although their view of its shores was almost unbounded, not a vestige of that singular race could be traced.

The spirit of the party sank under this failure of their hopes, and the old mountaineer Indian was actually overcome by his feelings.

Proceeding during “several melancholy days” along the borders of the eastern end, they saw everywhere vestiges and indications that this central lake had long been the chosen and undisturbed home of the Beothics; but these primitive people, for the past eighteen years, had been tormented by the Europeans; fatal rencontres had taken place; and they had for ever quitted the hitherto peaceful home of their fathers, whose bones were there carefully laid in their final resting places.

They surveyed the various relics of this “unoffending and cruelly extirpated people,” finding

at several places, by the margin of the lake, clusters of summer and winter wigwams in ruins.

Here they saw the beds dug in the earth, round the fire-place and in the sides of the wigwams; a wooden building for drying and smoking venison in, still perfect, and a small log-house which it was thought had been a store-house.

The wreck of a very large and handsome canoe, twenty-two feet long, nearly new, and very little used, was thrown up amongst the bushes on the beach, and rent by the violence of storm, the people in it having possibly perished, as the nails with which it was fastened, and which were very plentiful, still remained. Those treasures, procured from the fish stages by stealth, were too valuable not to have been taken away, had there been survivors of the catastrophe, for during many years no intercourse with the whites had taken place.

Here the woods in the vicinity of the lake exhibited the usual traces of the birch trees and the spruce pine having been stripped, for use and for food, of their bark to a very great extent, the evidences of a long sojourn.

But the most interesting subjects of all were the burying-places, if they can be so called, being rather morais. They were differently constructed, according to the rank, as was supposed, of the persons entombed, with very great care. One of them was shaped like a hut or cottage, ten feet by eight or nine, and four or five high, in the

ridge; was floored with squared poles, the roof covered with bark, and every part was well secured from the weather and the attacks of wild beasts. In it they found by opening the posts at one gable, were the bodies of two full-grown people laid at length on the carefully constructed floor, and wrapped in skins, with a white-deal coffin containing a skeleton neatly shrouded in white muslin—the remains, in short, of Mary March, which had been conveyed by a long and painful journey many years before, from the sea-side, where it had been left by Mr. Buchan. In it, also, they thought they observed the corpses of children, and one body had certainly not been placed in this cemetery more than five or six years. A variety of articles were deposited here, representations of the property, or the property, of the deceased in their life time, and of their achievements.

Two small wooden images of a male and female Indian, a small doll or image of a child, (Mary March's child was left here, and died two days after she was taken,) several small models of canoes, two small models of boats, an iron axe, a bow and quiver of arrows, were placed by the side of the body, supposed to be Mary March's husband, and two fire stones (radiated iron pyrites) lay at his head, as the Red Indian used these by collision to produce fire. There were also many cooking-vessels, made of birch bark and ornamented; and several other things, of which the use was unknown.

Another mode of disposing of the dead was similar to that of the Western Indians, of the sources of the Mississippi. The body was wrapped in birch bark, and with the property placed on a scaffold, about four feet and a half from the ground, formed of four posts, about seven feet high, which supported the stage or crib, five feet and a half in length by four in breadth, resting on the stage, or floor, made of small squared beams laid close together.

Again, the body was bent or doubled up, wrapped in birch bark, and enclosed in a sort of strong box, made of square posts, laid on each other horizontally, and notched at the corners, to make them meet closely. This was four feet by three, and two and a half deep, well lined with birch bark, to exclude the weather, and the corpse was laid on its right side.

The most common mode was, however, that of interment,—if placing the body in a wrapping of birch bark, and covering it well with a pile of stones, can be so called; but sometimes it was put a foot or two under the surface before the stones were placed over it, and in one place, where the ground was sandy and soft, the graves were deeper and no stones placed over them.

The most remarkable remains of the customs of this singular race are, in fact, those to be observed here and in their sepulchral stations on the sea-coasts at particular chosen spots, to which they were in the habit of bringing their dead from great distances. The women thus entombed, it

appears had only their clothes, and no property shut up with them.

The party, having failed in their main object, and the season rapidly advancing, determined to reach the sea by the River of Exploits, before its navigation should be obstructed; and, as they had no canoes, to do it on a raft made at each portage, rapid, or fall.

Mr. Cormack describes their sensation, on encamping one night on the remains of an old wigwam, before they left the Red Indian Lake, at the extremity of a point of land, which jutted out so far into it as to expose to their view the whole country round. It had been their custom, when approaching the lake, to extinguish their night fire, for fear of observation, some time before daylight.

Here, finding no enemies, they lit a large fire; but, says the enterprising traveller, "Two of my Indians evinced great uneasiness during the night, as it blazed up occasionally. They were the first of their races who had dared to intrude, from time immemorial, into the very central domain of the Bœothix, or even to approach near to it; this lake and territory having always been considered to belong exclusively to the Red Indian, and they truly thought themselves usurpers of his natal soil.

This lake discharges itself, at about three or four miles from its north-east end, into the River of Exploits, which runs rapidly to the sea in a noble stream for seventy miles.

On the north side of the Red Indian Lake, they saw the ends of two deer fences, about half a mile asunder, leading to the water, and which diverged many miles in a north-west direction. These were constructed with infinite labour, to lead the deer in their migrations into this narrow end of the lake, where, on taking the water, they were easily pursued and killed with spears.

They saw traces of these people in many places in their rapid course down the river, which lasted four days, and encountered many waterfalls; and the rapids were sometimes so swift as to carry the raft ten miles an hour. "But," observes Mr. Cormack, "what arrests the attention most, in gliding down the stream, is the extent of the Indian fences to entrap deer. They extend from the lake downwards, continuous on the banks of the river, at least thirty miles, with openings here and there, for the animals to go through, and swim across the river.

"Here, then, connecting these fences with those on the North-west side of the lake, are at least forty miles of country, easterly and westerly, prepared to intercept all the deer that pass that way, in their periodical migrations. It was melancholy to contemplate the gigantic, yet rude efforts of a whole primitive nation, in their anxiety to provide subsistence, forsaken and going to decay.

There must have been hundreds of Red Indians, and that not many years ago, to have kept up these fences and pounds. As their numbers were

lessened, so was their ability to keep them up for the purposes intended, and now the deer pass through the whole line unmolested."

We infer, that the few of these people who may yet survive, have taken refuge in some sequestered spot in the northern part of the island, where they can procure deer to subsist upon.

Mr. Cornack reached the sea, after a journey of thirty days, and after having made a circuit of two hundred and twenty miles in the Red Indian territory. He obtained from Shanandithit, and other sources, a short vocabulary of the language of this lost tribe, of from two to three hundred words, which abounded in diphthongs, and states that it resembled less the other Indian languages than the European.

The Indians he had taken with him were afterwards unsuccessfully employed by the Bœothic Society, to trace the retreat of the Red Men. It may therefore be safely conjectured, the race has either vanished from the things that be, or has migrated to Labrador, which is an easy transit of ten or twelve miles.

Mary March, it is said, had hair much like that of an European, but was of a copper colour, with black eyes. Her natural disposition was docile; and, although fifty years old, she was very active, and her whole demeanour agreeable; in this respect, as well as in her appearance, she was very different from the Micmacs, or any other Indians we are acquainted with, as was also Shanandithit, who was much younger.

It is vain now to attempt to trace the origin of this people; they had something in common with the rest of the Red Race of America and still a good deal to separate them. The most curious feature is their determined abhorrence of, and studied determination not to mix or converse with, their white destroyers—a fact strongly dividing them from the Continental Indian, who has always sooner or later yielded to the bearded stranger from the rising sun.

That stranger has secured a territory which he never, or seldom, visits, by the destruction of his race—not by the introduction of new diseases, or by the accursed fire water, but simply by the gun, a weapon which the Red Indian never wielded, but which his other enemies, the Micmac and the Esquimaux, with whom he was also at deadly feud, had been instructed in.

The waste of human life in this unnatural war can never be known; it resembles only the reckless extermination of the great auk, or penguin, by the fishermen of Newfoundland, who, whilst destroying the bird for its eggs, forgot that they were at the same time removing a landmark set by nature to warn their fellow-men of the approach to a dreadful coast.

In like manner, self-interest erased another harmless race of beings on these shores, and the indiscriminating slaughter of the walrus removed totally a valuable animal for commercial speculation, as the same reckless annual slaughter of the young seal is now so rapidly perfecting. All

yields before the power of gold,—the furrier kills the Red Indian because he wishes to have uncontrolled possession of the haunts of other creatures, which his cupidity is also exterminating,—the seal-hunter destroys millions of young animals, because their skins are better for trade than the older ones,—the whale-fisher has swept the icy north of the leviathan, and the walrus has disappeared equally with the penguin, because both furnished a ready means of getting gold.

## APPENDIX.



## APPENDIX.

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### No. I.

#### COLUMBUS' OFFERS TO HENRY VII. IN 1488.

THE following is from Hackluyt and Churchill's Collection of Voyages:—

“The offer of the discovery of the West Indies by Christopher Columbus to King Henry Seuenth, in the yecere 1488, the 13 of February: with the king's acceptation of the offer, and the cause whereupon hee was deprived of the same: recorded in the thirteenth chapter of the History of Don Fernand Columbus, of the life and deeds of his father, Christopher Columbus.”

“Christophero Colon temendo, se parimente i Re di Castiglia non assentissero alla sua impreso, non gli bisognasse proporla di nuouo à qualche altro principe; et cosi in cio passasse lungo tempo; mando in Inghilterra vn suo fratello, che haucua appresso di se, chiamato Bartholomeo Colon; il qual quantunque non hauesse lettere Latine, era pero huomo pratico, et giudicioso nelle cose del mare, et sapea molto bene far carte da nauigare, et sphere, et altsi instrumenti di quella professione, como dal suo fratello era instrutto. Partito adunque Bartholomeo Colon per Inghilterra, volle la sua sorte, che desse in man di corsali, i quali lo spogliarono insieme con gli altri

della sua naue. Per la qual cosa, et per la sva pouertà et infirmità, che in cosi diuerse terre lo assalirono crudelmenté, prolungo per gran tempo la sua ambasciata, fin che, aquistata vn poco di faculta con le carte, ch' ei fabricatta, cominciò a far pratiche co 'il Re Enrico settimo padre de Enrico ottauo; che al presente regna: a cui appresentò vn mappa mondo nel quale erano scritti queste versi, che fra le sue scritture lo trouai, et da me saranno qui posti piu tosto per l'antichità, che per la loro eleganza.

“ ‘Terrarum quicunque cupis fœliciter oras  
Noscere, cuncta decens docte pictura decebit,  
Quam Strabo affirmat, Ptolomæas, Plinius, atque  
Isidorus. non vno tamen sententia cuique,  
Pingitur hæc etiam nuper sulcata carinis  
Hispanis Zona illa, priùs igeognata genti  
‘Torrida, quæ tandem nunc est notissima multis.’

“ Et piu di sotto dicena.

“ ‘Pro Authore siue Pictore  
Januæ cui patriæ est nomen, cui Bartholomeus  
Columbus de terra Rubra, opus edidit istad,  
Londonijs anno Domini 1480 atque in saper anno  
Octavo, decimâque die cùm tertia mensis  
Februarij, Laudes Christo cantentur abunde.’

“ Et, percioche accuertirà alcuno, che dice Columbus de Terra Rubra, dico, che medesimamente lo viddi alcuno sotto scrittioni dell' Ammiraglio, primo che acquistasse lo stato, on' egli si sotto scriuena, Columbus de Terra Rubra. Ma, tomando al Re d' Inghilterra, dico, che, da lui il mappa mondo veduto, et eio che l' Ammiraglio gli offereiuu, con allegro volto accettò la sua offerta, et mandolo a chiamare. Ma, perchioche Dio l'haueua per Castiglia serbata, già l' Ammiraglio in qual tempo era audato, et tornato con la vittoria della sua impresa, secondo che per ordine si racconterà Lasciarò hora di raccontar ciò, che Barlomeo Colon haueua negociato in Inghilterra, et tomarò all' Ammiraglio,” &c.

*The same in English.*

“ Christopher Columbus, fearing least if the King of Castile in like manner (as the King of Portugall had done) should not condescend unto his enterprize, he should be inforced to offer the same againe to some other prince, and so much time should be spent therein, sent into England a certaine brother of his which he had with him, whose name was Bartholomew Columbus, who, albeit he had not the Latine tongue, yet, neuerthelesse, was a man of experience and skilfull in sea causes, and could very wel make sea cards and globes, and other instruments belonging to that profession, as he was instructed by his brother. Wherefore, after that Bartholomew Columbus was departed for England, his lucke was to fall into the hands of pirates, which spoiled him with the rest of them that were in the ship which he went in. Upon which occasion, and by reason of his pouerty and sicknesse, which cruelly assaulted him in a country so farre distant from his friends, he deferred his embassage for a long while, vntille such time as he had gotten somewhat handsome about him with making of sea cards. At lenth he began to deal with King Henry the Seuenth, the father of Henry the Eight which reigneth at this present; vnto whom he presented a mappe of the world, wherein these verses were written, which I found among his papers: and I will here set them downe, rather for their antiquity then for their goodness:—

“ ‘ Thou which desireth easily the coasts of lande to know,  
 This comely mappe right learnedly the same will shew;  
 Which Strabo, Plinie, Ptolomew and Isodore maintaine,  
 Yet for all that they do not all in one accord remaine.  
 Here also is set down, the late discovered burning Zone  
 By Portingals, vnto the world which whilom was vnknown,  
 Whereof the knowledge now at length thorow all the world is  
 blowen.’ ”

“And a little under he added,

“ For the Author or the Drawer,  
 He, whose deare native soile, hight stately Genua,  
 Even he whose name is Bartholomew Colon de Terra Rubra,  
 The yeare of grace a thousand and four hundred and four score  
 And eight, and on the thirteenth day of February more;  
 In London published this worke. To Christ all laude therefore.’

“And because some peradventure may observe that he calleth himselfe Columbus de Terra Rubra, I say, that in like manner I have scene some subscriptions of my father, Christopher Columbus, before he had the degree of Admirall, wherein he signed his name thus—Columbus de Terra Rubra. But to return to the King of England. I say, that after he had scene the map, and that which my father, Christopher Columbus, offered vnto him, he accepted the offer with joyfull countenance, and sent to calle him into England. But because Heaven had reserved the sayd offer for Castile, Columbus was gone in the meane space, and also returned with the performance of his enterprize, as hereafter in order shall be rehearsed. Now will I leaue off from making any further mention of that which Bartholomew Colon had negociated in England, and I will return vnto the Admirall,” &c.

COLUMBUS' OFFER TO HENRY VII., FROM  
 HACKLUYT.

“Another testimony taken out of the 60 chapter of the foresayd History of Ferdinando Columbus, concerning the offer that Bartholomew Columbus made to King Henry the Seuenth, on the behalfe of his brother Christopher.”

“Tornato adunque l'Ammiraglio dello scoprimento di Cuba et di Giamaca, trono nella Spagnuola.

Bartolomeo Colon suo fratello, quello, che era già andato a trattare accordo col Re d'Inghilterra sopra lo scoprimiento della Indie, come di sopra habiam detto. Questo poi, ritomandi seue verso Castiglia con capitoli conceduti, hauena inteso a Parigi dal re Carlo di Francia, l'Ammiraglio suo fratello hauer già scoperte l'Indie: per che gli souenne per poter far il Viaggio di cento scudi. Et Auenga che per cotal nuoua egli si fosse molto affretato, per arrivar l'Ammiraglio in Spagna, quando non dimeno giunse a Siuiglia, egli era già tornato alle Indie có 17 nauigli. Perche, per asseguir quanto ei gli hauena lasciato, die subito al principio dell'anno del 1494, sen' andò a i Re Catholici, meuando seco Don Diego Colon, mio fratello, et me ancora, acchioche seruissimo di paggi al serenissimo principe Don Giovanni, il qual uiua in gloria, sì come hauea commandato la Catholica Reina donna Isabella, che allora era in Vagliadolid. Tofto adunque che noi giungemmo, i Re chiamarono Don Bartolomeo et madiaronlo alla Spagnuola con tre naui," &c.

*The same in English.*

“ Christopher Columbus, the admiral, being returned from the discovery of Cuba and Jamaica, found in Hispaniola his brother Bartholomew Columbus, who before had beene sent to intreat of an agreement with the King of England for the discovery of the Indies, as we have sayd before. This Bartholomew, therefore, returning into Castile, with the capitulations granted by the King of England to his brother, vnderstood at Paris by Charles, the King of France, that the admirall, his brother, had already performed that discovery; whereupon the French king gaue vnto the Bartholomew an hundred French crownes to beare his charges into Spaine. And albeit, he made

great haste vpon this good newes to meet with the Admirall in Spain, yet at his comming to Seuil, his brother was already returned to the Indies with seuen-teene saile of shippes. Wherefore, to fulfill that which he had left him in charge in the beginning of the year 1494, he repaired to the Catholike princes, taking with him Diego Colon, my brother, and me also, which were to be preferred as pages to his highness Don Juan, as had been appointed by the most excellent Lady Isabell, which was then in Validolid. As soone, therefore, as we came to the court, the princes called for Don Bartholomew, and sent him to Hispaniola with three shippes," &c.

The reader is, perhaps, not aware that the original work of Don Ferdinand Columbus appears to have been lost, and that the short account by Columbus himself of his discovery shared the same fate. Of the former, however, there exists an Italian translation, now very rare, by Alphonso Ulloa; the Spanish edition, by Barcia, of 1749, being a miserable translation from the old Italian version.

The best English translation from the Italian copy is that given in Churchill's Collection of Voyages and Travels, in folio, 4 vols., London, 1704.

The letter of Columbus, whatever may have been its fate in the original, has been preserved in a Latin copy, dated soon after the discovery, the title of which is,—

“Colombi (Christoferi) Epistola, de Insulis Indiæ supra Gangem nuper inventis, ad Gabrielem Sanchis, Leander de Cosco Hispano idiomate in Latinum convertit, tertii Kal. Maii 1493. Pontificatus Alexandri VI. anno primo. Romæ.”

This rare and most interesting work is in four leaves only, of which one copy is in the royal library at Madrid; and some years ago I traced another, which was then in the possession of Mr. Fazackerly, M.P.,

from which the above title was derived, but I have not been able to trace a third. An Italian and some other translations are, however, to be found, and it was reprinted, with several faults, in the *Hispania Illustrata* of Andrew Schott.

## APPENDIX II.

### HISTORICAL MEMOIRS OF SIR JOHN CABOT.

*From "Campbell's Lives of the Admirals," p. 313.*

THE Venetians, throughout the whole century, and, indeed, for some ages before, were by far the most general traders in Europe, and had their factories in most of the northern kingdoms and states for the better management of their affairs.\* In England, especially, many of them settled, at London and Bristol particularly; and in this last place dwelt John Gabota, Gabot, or, as our writers usually call him, John Cabot, of whom we are to speak. He had been long in England, since his son Sebastian, who was born at Bristol, was old enough to accompany him in his first voyage:† he was, it seems, a man perfectly skilled in all the sciences requisite to form an accomplished seaman, or a general trader; and having heard much of Columbus's expedition, he addressed himself to the king with proposals for making like discoveries, in case he met with due encouragement.

His offer was readily accepted; and the king, by letters patent, dated March the 5th, in the eleventh year of his reign, granted to him, by the name of John

\* Libel of English Polity in keeping the Narrow Sea, chap. vii.—ix. in Hackluyt, v. i., p. 193. Sir Wm. Monson's Naval Tracts, p. 442, 443. P. Charlevoix, Histoire de la Nouvelle France, tom. i., p. 4.

† Petri Martyris ab Anglesia de Novo Orbe, dec. iii., lib. vi. Lopez de Gomara Historia General de las Indias, lib. ii., c. iv. Navigazione et Viaggi raccolti da M. Gio. Batt. Ramusio, tom. iii., improcchio.

Cabot, citizen of Venice, and to his three sons, Lewis, Sebastian, and Sanetius, leave to discover unknown lands, and to conquer and settle them, with many privileges, reserving only to himself one-fifth part of the neat profits, and with this single restraint, that the ships they fitted out should be obliged to return to the port of Bristol.\*

Though these letters-patent were granted in 1495, yet it was the next year before they proceeded to send out any ships; and then John Cabot had a permission from the king to take six English ships in any haven of the realm, of the burden of two hundred tons and under, with as many mariners as should be willing to go with him.†

In consequence of this licence, the king, at his own expense, caused a ship to be equipped at Bristol; to this, the merchants of that city and of London added three or four small vessels, freighted with proper commodities; which fleet sailed in the spring of the year 1497.‡

Our old chronicle-writers, particularly Fabian,§ tell us of a very rich island which John Cabot promised to discover, but in this they seem to mistake the matter, for want of thoroughly understanding the subject of which they were writing. John Cabot was too wise a man to pretend to know, before he saw it, what country he should discover, whether island or continent; but what he proposed was, to find a north-west passage to the Indies, so that he appears to have reasoned in the same manner that Columbus did, who imagined that, as the Portuguese by sailing east came to the west coast of the Indies, so he, by sailing west, might meet their opposite shore. This, with his dis-

\* Rymer's *Fœdera*, tom. xii. p. 595; Hackluyt's *Collection of Voyages*, tom. iii. p. 4.

† *Ibid.* p. 5.

‡ Fabian's *Chronicles*, as hereafter cited.

§ *Ibid.* Stowe.

covering the island of Baccalaos, or Newfoundland, was certainly the source of this story.

John Cabot, having his son Sebastian with him, sailed, happily, on their north-west course till the 24th of June 1497, about five in the morning, when they first discovered land, which John Cabot, for that reason, called *Prima Vista*—that is, first seen. Another island, less than the first, he styled the island of St. John, because it was found on the feast of St. John the Baptist. He afterwards sailed down to Cape Florida, and then returned with a good cargo and three savages on board into England, where it seems he was knighted for this exploit, since on the map of his discoveries, drawn by his son Sebastian, and cut by Clement Adams, which hung in the privy gallery at Whitehall, there was this inscription under the author's picture—*Effigies Seb. Caboti, Angli, filii Jo. Caboti, Venetiani, militis aurati, &c.\**

This was a very important discovery, since, in truth, it was the first time the continent of America had been seen, Columbus being unacquainted therewith till his last voyage, which was the year following, when he coasted along a part of the Isthmus of Darien. It is somewhat strange that our English writers have delivered these matters so confusedly, especially such as lived under the reigns of Queen Elizabeth and King James I., and, consequently, in and near the time of his son; yet so inaccurate are their relations, that some have been induced from thence to doubt whether John Cabot made any discoveries at all.† The Rev. Mr. Samuel Purchas, to whose labours the world is so much indebted, discovers a good deal of distaste that America should

\* Hackluyt's Voyages, vol. iii. p. 6. Purchas's Pilgrims, vol. iii. pp. 461, 807.

† Lediard's Naval History, vol. i. p. 86.

be so called, from Americus Vesputius, and asserts that it ought rather to be called Cabotiana, or Sebastianiana, because, says he, Sebastian Cabot discovered more of it than Americus, or Columbus himself.\* In Stowe† and Speed,‡ we find this very discovery ascribed wholly to Sebastian, without any mention of his father; and yet, in Fabian's Chronicle, who lived in those days, we have these two remarkable passages:—"In the thirteenth year of King Henry VII. (by means of one John Cabot, a Venetian, which made himself very expert and cunning in the knowledge of the circuit of the world, and islands of the same, as by a sea card, and other demonstrations reasonable, he shewed), the king caused to man and victual a ship at Bristol, to search for an island, which he said he knew well was rich, and replenished with great commodities; which ship, thus manned and victualled at the king's cost, divers merchants of London ventured in her small stocks, being in her, as chief patron, the said Venetian. And in the company of the said ship, sailed also out of Bristol, three or four small ships, freighted with slight and gross merchandise—as coarse cloth, caps, laces, points, and other trifles, and so departed from Bristol in the beginning of May, of whom, in this mayor's time, returned no tidings."

Under the fourteenth year of the same king's reign, he tells us—"There were brought unto him" (i.e., Henry VII.) "three men taken in the new-found island; these," says he, "were clothed in beasts' skins, whom the king kept a time after: of the which, about two years after, I saw two, apparelled after the manner of Englishmen, in Westminster Palace, which at that time I could not discern from Englishmen, till

\* Pilgrimage, p. 602.

† Annals, p. 480.

‡ Chronicles, p. 744.

I was learned what they were ; but, as for speech, I heard none of them utter one word."

Thus, it appears, from the best authority that can be desired, that of a contemporary writer, this discovery was made by Sir John Cabot, the father of Sebastian ; and, indeed, so much we might have gathered, if we had wanted this authority, for Sebastian Cabot being, as we shall see hereafter, alive in 1557, it is plain that, at the time this voyage was made, he could not be above twenty years old, when, though he might accompany his father, yet, certainly, he was too young to undertake such an expedition himself.\* It is probable that John Cabot died in England, but when or where is uncertain, at least for anything I have read.

There is, indeed, another account of this affair, which supposes that Sir John Cabot, with his son Sebastian, sailed for the discovery of a north-west passage before this expedition, by the royal authority, and that, in this voyage, they had sight of the island which was afterwards called Newfoundland. To this opinion I should also incline, if it could be clearly reconciled to the authorities which have been produced and considered with the greatest attention. At all events, whichever be the true account, this man, Sir John Cabot, was the original discoverer, of which honour he ought not to be despoiled even by his son, of whom we shall also give some memoirs in their proper place.† At present, we will conclude

\* This detail has been collected from Mr. Thorne's (of Bristol) Letter to Dr. Leigh, which Mr. Thorne was the son of the merchant of Bristol, who, in conjunction with Mr. Elliot, fitted out the Cabot's, as also from Sebastian Cabot's own accounts, and from the remarks of Hackluyt, Eden, and Purchas.

† The compiler of these memoirs cannot have read Richard Eden's statement attentively, where an account of John Cabot's death is given ; see chapter first of this work. As for Sebastian being too young at twenty to prosecute the discovery, we have only to consider

with remarking, that the offer of Christopher Columbus, the favour shewn to his brother Bartholomew, and the encouragement given to Sir John Cabot and his family, do the highest honour to the memory of Henry VII., and fix the revival of our commercial spirit to his reign.

#### MEMOIR OF SEBASTIAN CABOT.

*Campbell's Lives of the Admirals*, p. 373.

We may add to these proofs of the flourishing of naval power under this young prince (Edward VI.), the attempt made for discovering a north-east passage, which will lead us to speak of the most accomplished seaman who lived in his time, and whose memory deserves for his industry, penetration, and integrity, to be transmitted to posterity: I mean the celebrated and justly famous SEBASTIAN CABOT.

This gentleman was the son of that eminent Venetian pilot, Sir John Cabot, of whom we have given some account heretofore. He was born at Bristol, about the year 1477, and therefore Mr. Strype is mistaken when he tells us that he was an Italian, into which he was led by the name he met with in the MS. from whence he copied his remarks—viz., *Subastiano Caboto*,\*—an inaccuracy common enough with our old writers, who affect to vary foreign names strangely, a folly with which the French are still infected, insomuch that it is a difficult thing to understand English proper names, even in their latest and best historians. Sebastian was educated by his father, in the study of those parts of the mathematics which were then best understood, especially

the early age at which men like Sir Walter Raleigh began their career.

\* Grafton, p. 1323, says he was born at Bristol, and that he was the son of a Genoese. Strype's Memorials, vol. ii. p. 402.

arithmetic, geometry, and cosmography ; and by that time he was seventeen years old, he had made several trips to sea, in order to add to his theoretical notions a competent skill in the practical part of navigation ; and in like manner were bred the rest of his father's sons, who became also eminent men and settled abroad—one in Genoa, the other in Venice.\*

The first voyage of consequence in which Sebastian Cabot was engaged, seems to have been that made by his father for the discovery of the north-west passage, of which we have given some account before.† This was in 1497, and certainly first taught our seamen a passage to North America ; but whether Sebastian Cabot did not, after the decease of his father, prosecute his design and make a more perfect discovery of the coasts of the Newfoundland, is a great doubt with me, because I find such incongruous relations of this voyage in different authors.‡ For instance, Peter Martyr, who was intimately acquainted with Sebastian, and wrote in a manner from his own mouth, says, that the voyage wherein he made his great discovery towards the north was performed in two ships, fitted out at his own expense,§ which by no means agrees with his father's expedition, wherein were employed one stout ship of the king's and four belonging to the merchants of Bristol.¶ Besides this, a very intelligent Spanish writer, who is very exact in his chronology, tells us, that when Cabot sailed at the expense of King Henry VII., in order to make discoveries towards the north, he passed beyond Cape Labrador somewhat more than fifty-eight degrees of north latitude ; then turning towards the west, he

\* Remarks on Hackluyt's MS.

† In the Life of John Cabot, p. 312.

‡ As appears, by comparing the accounts in Hackluyt with those in Purchas, and in the History of Travel, by Eden.

§ Decad., iii. cap. 6.

¶ Fabian's MS. Chronicle, A.D. 1497.

sailed along the coast to thirty-eight degrees, which agrees very well with our accounts of John Cabot's voyage;\* but Ramusio, the Italian collector, who had the letter of Sebastian Cabot before him when he wrote, speaks of a voyage wherein he sailed north, and by west, to sixty-seven degrees and a half, and would have proceeded further if he had not been hindered by a mutiny among his sailors.†

The writers in those days had no precision: they set down facts very confusedly, without much attending to circumstances, and were still less solicitous about dates, which gives those who come after them much trouble, and yet seldom attaining any certainty, which, I must acknowledge, is the case here. It is, however, probable that Sebastian made more than one, perhaps more than two voyages into these parts, by virtue of King Henry VII.'s commission; and, if so, he well deserved the character Sir William Monson has given of him,‡ and of his important discoveries, which the reader will be pleased to see in his own words: the authority of the writer, from his perfect knowledge of the subject, being of as much weight as the facts he mentions:—"To come to the particulars (says he) of augmentation of our trade, of our plantations, and our discoveries, because every man shall have his due therein, I will begin with Newfoundland, lying upon the main continent of America, which the King of Spain challenges as first discoverer; but as we acknowledge the King of Spain the first light of the west and south-west parts of America, so we, and all the world must confess, that we were the first that took possession for the crown of England of the north part thereof, and not above

\* Lopez de Gomara. *Hist. de Ind. Occident.*, lib. ii. cap. 4.

† In his preface to the third volume of his excellent collection.

‡ In the large collection called *Churchill's Voyages*, vol. iii. p. 396; and his character, p. 401.

two years difference between the one and the other. And as the Spaniards have from that day and year held their possession in the west, so have we done the like in the north ; and though there is no respect in comparison of the wealth betwixt the countries, yet England may boast that the discovery, from the year aforesaid to this very day, hath afforded the subject annually one hundred and twenty thousand pounds, and increased the number of many a good ship and mariners, as our western parts can witness, by their fishing in Newfoundland. Neither can Spain challenge a more natural right than we to the discovery, for in that case we are both alike.

“ If we deal truly with others, and not deprive them of their right, it is Italy that must assume the discovery to itself, as well in the one part of America as in the other. Genoa and Christopher Columbus by name must carry away the praise of it from Spain ; for Spain had not that voyage in agitation, or thought of it, till Columbus not only proposed but accomplished it. The like may be said of Sebastian Cabot,\* a Venetian, who, by his earnest intercession to Henry VII., drew him to the discovery of Newfoundland, and called it by the name of *Baccalou*, an Indian name for fish, from the abundance of fish upon that coast.”

This plainly shews the great sagacity and unbiassed impartiality of this ingenious author, who points very justly to those advantages (and these not inconsiderable) which had, even in his time, accrued to this nation from these discoveries, and fairly prescribes to Italy the honour of producing those incomparable persons by whom they were made ; for though he is

\* This affords a farther and more direct proof of my conjecture, that Sebastian Cabot made more than one voyage in the service of Henry VII., since, from what our author says, it looks as if he had not only found the country, but established the fishery of Newfoundland.

a little mistaken in the name, ascribing to Sebastian what was due to Sir John Cabot, yet he is right as to the fact, for Sir John was a citizen and native of Venice, which fully justifies his compliment to Italy, the mother of science, and the nurse of the fine arts.

If this worthy man had performed nothing more, his name ought surely to have been transmitted to future times with honour, since it clearly appears that Newfoundland hath been a source of riches and naval power to this nation, from the time it was discovered, as well as the first of our plantations; so that, with strict justice, it may be said of Sebastian Cabot, that he was the author of our maritime strength, and opened the way to those improvements which have rendered us so great, so eminent, so flourishing a people. Yet we have no distinct accounts of what he advised, or what he performed for upwards of twenty years together, wherein, certainly, so able a man could never have been idle. The next news we hear of him is in the eighth year of Henry VIII., and our accounts then are none of the clearest.\*

It seems that Cabot had entered into a strict correspondence with Sir Thomas Pert, at this time vice-admiral of England, who had a house at Poplar, and procured him a good ship of the king's, in order to make discoveries;† but it looks as if he had now changed his route, and intended to have passed by the south to the East Indies; for he sailed first to Brazil, and missing there of his purpose, shaped his course for the islands of Hispaniola and Porto Rico, where he carried on some traffic, and then returned, failing absolutely in the design upon which he went, not through any want either of courage or conduct in

\* See Wheeler's Discourse of Trade, and Captain Luke Fox's Account of the North-west Passage.

† Hackluyt's Voyages, vol. iii. p. 496.

himself, but from the fear and faint-heartedness of Sir Thomas Pert, his coadjutor, of which we have abundant testimony from the writings of a person who lived in those times.\*

This disappointment, in all probability, might dispose Sebastian Cabot to leave England and to go over to Spain, where he was treated with very great respect, and raised as high as his profession would admit, being declared pilot-major, or chief pilot, of Spain; and, by his office, entrusted with the reviewing all projects for discovery, which in those days were many and important. His great capacity and approved integrity induced many rich merchants to treat with him, in the year 1524, in relation to a voyage, to be undertaken at their expense, by the new-found passage of Magellan to the Moluccas, which, at length, he accepted, and of which we have a clear account in the writings of the Spanish historian, Herrera.†

He sailed, says he, about the beginning of April, 1525, first to the Canaries, then to the islands of Cape Verde, thence to Cape St. Augustine, and the Island of Patos, or Geese; and near Bahia de Todos los Santos, or the Bay of All Saints, he met with a French ship. He was said to have managed but indiscreetly, as wanting provisions when he came to the said island; but there the Indians were very kind, and supplied him with provisions for all his ships, but he requited them very indifferently, carrying away with him, by force, four sons of the principal men. Thence he proceeded to the River of Plate, having left ashore, on a desert island, Martin Mendez, (his vice-

\* See the dedication of a piece called "A Treatise of New India," published in 1555, by Mr. Richard Eden, and addressed to the great Duke of Northumberland. Gonsalvo de Oviedo Hist. Ind. Occid., lib. xix. cap. 13.

† Decad. iii., lib. iii. cap. 2.

admiral,) Captain Francis de Rojas, and Michael de Rojas, because they censured his management; and in conclusion, he went not to the Spice Islands, as well because he had not provisions, as by reason the men would not sail under him, fearing his conduct of the vessel in the straits. He sailed up the River of Plate, and about thirty leagues above the mouth found an island, which he called St. Gabriel, about a league in compass, and half a league to the continent towards Brazil. There he anchored, and rowing with the boats three leagues higher, discovered a river he called *San Salvador*, or St. Saviour, very deep, and a safe harbour for the ships on the same side, whither he brought up his vessels and unloaded them, because at the mouth of the river there was not much water. Having built a fort and left some men in it, he resolved to proceed up that river with boats and a flat-bottomed caravel, in order to make discoveries, thinking that although he did not pass the straits to the Spice Islands, his voyage would not be altogether fruitless. Having advanced thirty leagues, he came to a river called *Zarcarana*, and finding the natives thereabouts a good-natured, rational people, he erected another fort, calling it *Santi Spiritus*—i.e., of the Holy Ghost; and his followers, by another name—viz., Cabot's Fort.

He thence discovered the shores of the river Parana, which is that of Plate, where he found many islands and rivers, and, keeping along the greatest stream, at the end of two hundred leagues came to another river, to which the Indians gave the name of Paraguay, and left the great river on the right, thinking it bent towards the coast of Brazil; and running up thirty-four leagues, found people tilling the ground—a thing which in those parts he had not seen before. There he met with so much opposition that he advanced no further, but killed many Indians, and they

slew twenty-five of his Spaniards, and took three that were gone to gather palmettoes, to eat. At the same time Cabot was thus employed, James Garcia, with the same view of making discoveries, had entered the River of Plate, without knowing that the other was there before him. He entered the said river about the beginning of the year 1527, having sent away his own, which was a large ship, alleging that it was of much too great burden for the discovery, and with the rest came to an anchor in the same place where Cabot's ship lay, directing his course, with two brigantines and sixty men, towards the river Parana, which lies north and north-west, arrived at the fort built by Cabot.

About one hundred and ten leagues above this fort, he found Sebastian Cabot himself in the fort of St. Anne, so named by the latter, and after a short stay there, they returned together to the fort of the Holy Ghost, and thence sent messengers into Spain. Those who were despatched by Sebastian Cabot were Francis Calderon and George Barlow, who gave a very fair account of the fine countries bordering on the River La Plata, shewing how large a tract of land he had not only discovered, but subdued; and producing gold, silver, and other rich commodities, as evidences in favour of their general's conduct. The demands they made were, that a supply should be sent of provision, ammunition, goods proper to carry on a trade, and a competent recruit of seamen and soldiers. To this the merchants, by whom Cabot's squadron was fitted out, would not agree, but chose to let their rights escheat to the crown of Castile. The king then took the whole upon himself, but was so dilatory in his preparations that Sebastian Cabot, quite tired out, as having been five years in America, resolved to return home, which he did, embarking the remainder of his men and all his effects on board the

biggest of his ships, and leaving the rest behind him.\*

It was the spring of the year 1531 when Cabot arrived at the Spanish court, and gave an account of his expedition. It is evident enough, from the manner in which the Spanish writers speak of him, that he was not well received, and one may easily account for it. He had raised himself enemies by treating his Spanish mutineers with so much severity; and, on the other hand, his owners were disappointed by his not pursuing his voyage to the Moluccos; he kept his place, however, and remained in the service of Spain many years after, and at length he was invited back again to England.† We have no account how this was brought about in any author now extant, and therefore I shall offer to the reader's consideration a conjecture of my own, which he may accept or reject, according as it seems to him probable or improbable.

Mr. Robert Thorne, an English\* merchant at Seville, whom we have mentioned before with commendation, was intimately acquainted with Cabot, and was actually one of his owners in his last expedition.‡ It seems, therefore, not at all unlikely that he, after his return from Newfoundland, might importune Cabot to think of coming home; and what seems to add a greater appearance of truth to this conjecture, is Cabot's settling at Bristol when he did return to England, of which city Mr. Thorne was an eminent merchant, and once mayor.§ These transactions fell out towards the twenty-fourth year of the reign of Henry VIII., about which time, as I suppose,

\* Herrera Decad., iii. lib. v. cap. 3. See also an account of this expedition in Churchill's *Voyages*, vol. i., in the Introduction.

† Hackluyt's *Voyages*, p. iii. p. 7. See also the Preface to the third volume of Ramusio.

‡ Hackluyt's *Voyages*, p. 726.

§ See p. 328, first volume of Campbell's *Lives of the Admirals*.

Sebastian Cabot actually returned, and settled with his family here.

In the very beginning of King Edward's reign, this eminent seaman was introduced to the Duke of Somerset, then Lord Protector, with whom he was in great favour, and by whom he was made known to the king, who took a great deal of pleasure in his conversation, being much better versed in the studies to which Cabot had applied himself than, his tender years considered, could have been expected; for he knew not only all the ports and havens in this island and in Ireland, but also those in France, their shape, method of entering, commodities and incommunities, and, in short, could answer almost any question about them that a sailor could ask.\* We need not wonder, therefore, that, with such a prince, Cabot was in high esteem, or that in his favour a new office should be created equivalent to that which he enjoyed in Spain, together with a pension of one hundred and sixty-six pounds, thirteen shillings, and fourpence, which we find granted to him by letters-patent, dated January 6th, 1549, in the second year of that king's reign, by a special clause in which patent this annuity is made to commence from the Michaelmas preceding.† It was in this year that the emperor's minister, D'Arras, in the name of his master, signified to Sir Thomas Cheyne and Sir Philip Hoby, the English ambassadors then at the court of Brussels, his imperial majesty's request, that the king would send over thither our famous seaman, as he could be of no great service to the English nation, who had little to do with the Indian seas, and more especially as he was a very necessary person to the emperor, was his servant in the capacity of grand pilot of the Indies, and to whom he had granted a pension, and that in such a way as the

\* Burnet's History of the Reformation, vol. ii. p. 225.

luyt's Voyages, p. iii. p. 10. Rymer's Fœdera, tom. xv.

emperor should at some convenient opportunity declare unto the king's council. But we have no account that this application was in any shape complied with.\*

He continued thenceforward highly in the king's favour, and was consulted upon all matters relating to trade, particularly in the great case of the merchants of the Steel-yard, in 1551, of which it will be fit to insert a short succinct account here, since it has escaped the notice of most of our historians, though it gave, in some measure, a new turn to the whole state of our commerce.

These merchants are sometimes called of the Hanse, because they came from the Hanse Towns, or free cities in Germany—sometimes Almain, from their country. They settled here in or before the reign of Henry III., and imported grain, cordage, flax, hemp, linen cloth, wax, and steel, whence the place in Dowgate ward, where they dwelt, was called the Steel-yard, which name it still retains. The kings of England encouraged them at first, and granted them large privileges; amongst others, that of exporting our woollen cloths. They had likewise an alderman, who was their chief magistrate, and in consideration of various grants from the city, they stood bound to repair Bishopsgate, and were likewise under other obligations. By degrees, however, the English coming to trade themselves, and importing many of the commodities in which these Germans dealt, great controversies grew between them—the foreigners on all occasions pleading their charter, which the English merchants treated as a monopoly not well warranted by law.

At last, the company of merchant adventurers, at the head of which was our Sebastian Cabot, on the 29th of December, 1551, exhibited to the council an

\* Strype's Memorials, vol. ii., p. 190.

information against these merchants of the Steel-yard, to which they were directed to put in their answer. They did so, and after several hearings, and a reference to the king's solicitor-general, his counsel learned in the law, and the recorder of London, a decree passed on the 24th of February, whereby these merchants of the Steel-yard were declared to be no legal corporation; yet licences were afterwards granted them, from time to time, for the exportation and importation of goods, notwithstanding this decree, which remained still in full force and virtue.\*

The great offence objected to them was, that whereas by their charter they were allowed to export goods at one and a quarter per cent. custom, which gave them a great advantage; they, not content with this, in direct violation of that charter, covered other foreign merchants, so that in one year they exported forty-four thousand cloths, and all other strangers but one thousand one hundred. These merchants of the Steel-yard being immensely rich, ventured now and then upon such tricks as these, and then, by paying a round sum, procured a renewal of their charter.

In the month of May, 1552, the king granted a licence, together with letters of safe conduct, to such persons as should embark on board three ships, to be employed for the discovery of a passage by the north to the East Indies. Sebastian Cabot was at that time governor of the company of merchant adventurers, on whose advice this enterprise was undertaken, and by whose interest this countenance from the court was procured.† The accounts we have of this matter

\* Minutes of these proceedings are to be found in King Edward's Diary, and the decree at large in Mr. Wheeler's *Treatise of Commerce*, p. 94; quarto, London, 1601.

† Strype's *Memorials*, vol. ii. p. 504; but Mr. Strype's remark, that these were the ships which went with Sir Hugh Willoughby, is wrong.

differ widely ; but, as I observe, there is a variation in the dates of a whole year, so I am apt to believe, that there must have been two distinct undertakings—one under the immediate patronage of the court, which did not take effect, and the other by a joint stock of the merchants, which did. Of the first, because it is little taken notice of, I will speak particularly here, for the other will come in properly in my account of Sir Hugh Willoughby. When, therefore, this matter was first proposed, the king lent two ships, the “*Primrose*” and the “*Moon*,” to Barnes, Lord Mayor of London, Mr. Garret, one of the sheriffs, and Mr. York and Mr. Wyndham, two of the adventurers, giving bond to the king to deliver two ships of light burden, and in as good condition, at Midsummer, 1554. In consideration, also, of the expense and trouble of Sebastian Cabot, his majesty made him a present of two hundred pounds.\*

A year afterwards, this grand undertaking was brought to bear ; and thereupon Sebastian Cabot delivered to the commander-in-chief those directions by which he was to regulate his conduct ; the title of which ran thus:—“*Ordinances, instructions, and advertisements of and for the direction of the intended voyage for Cathay, compiled, made, and delivered by the Right Worshipful Sebastian Cabot, Esq., governor of the mystery and company of the merchant adventurers for the discovery of regions, dominions, islands, and places unknown, the 9th of May, in the year of our Lord 1553.*”† This shews how great a trust was reposed in this gentleman by the government, and by the merchants of England ; and the instructions themselves, which we still have entire,‡ are the clearest proofs of his sagacity and penetration,

\* *Strype's Memorials*, vol. ii. p. 402.

† These are yet in the hands of the Russia Company.

‡ In *Hackluyt's Voyages*, vol. i. p. 226.

and the fullest justification of such as did repose their trust in him.

Many have surmised that he was a knight; whence we often see him styled Sir Sebastian; but the very title of those instructions I have cited, proves the contrary, as also the charter granted by King Philip and Queen Mary, in the first year of their reign, to the merchants of Russia, since styled the Russia Company, whereby Sebastiano Cabota is made governor for life, on account of his being principally concerned in fitting out the first ships employed in that trade;\* but so far from being styled knight, that he is called only one Sebastiano Cabota, without any distinction at all.† Indeed, he is styled Sebastian Cabot, Esq., in the letters patent, bearing date at St. James's, November 27, 1555, in the second and third years of Philip and Mary, wherein their majesties are pleased to grant him an annuity of one hundred and sixty-six pounds thirteen shillings and fourpence during his natural life; as he is also in letters patent, dated at Westminster, May 29, 1557, the third and fourth of the same reign, when those princes were pleased to permit him to surrender his former patent, and, as a reward of his great merit, to grant him the like annuity as before, not only during his life, but also to continue the same to William Worthington, Esq., a friend, no doubt, of Cabot, for his natural life likewise.‡ After this, we find him very active in the affairs of the company, in the year 1556; and in the journal of Mr. Stephen Burroughs, it is observed, that on the 27th of April that year, he went down to Gravesend, and

\* Hackluyt's Voyages, vol. i. p. 267, where the charter is at large.

† The words in the charter are: "And in consideration, that one Sebastiano Cabota hath been the chief setter forth of this voyage, therefore," &c.; which authentic declaration of his merit does him more honour than any titles could have done.

‡ Rymer's *Fœdera*, tom. xv. pp. 427—465.

there went on board the "Scarchthrift," a small vessel fitted out under the command of the said Burroughs for Russia, where he gave generously to the sailors; and, on his return to Gravesend, he extended his alms very liberally to the poor, desiring them to pray for the success of the voyage. We find it also remarked, which shews the cheerful temper of the man, that, upon his coming back to Gravesend, he caused a grand entertainment to be made at the sign of the Christopher, where, says Mr. Burroughs, for the very joy he had to see the towardness of our intended discovery, he entered into the dance himself.\* This, except the renewing his patent, is the last circumstance relating to Cabot that I can meet with anywhere; and it is certain that a person of his temper could not have been idle, or his actions remain in obscurity, so I look upon it as certain that he died some time in the next year, when, if not fourscore, he was at least much upwards of seventy.

He was unquestionably one of the most extraordinary men of the age in which he lived, and who, by his capacity and industry, contributed not a little to the service of mankind in general, as well as of this kingdom: for he it was who first took notice of the variation of the compass, which is of such mighty consequence in navigation, and concerning which the learned have busied themselves in their inquiries ever since.† An Italian writer, famous for making the most judicious selection of voyages which has hitherto appeared, celebrates Sebastian Cabot as his countryman;‡ yet, as he was, if we believe himself, ours both by nature and affection,§ and as we owe so

\* Hackluyt's Voyages, vol. i. pp. 274, 275.

† Stowe's Annals, p. 181; Varenus's Geography, p. 837.

‡ Gio Battista Ramusio, in the preface to his third volume.

§ Strype's Memorials, vol. iii. p. 319.

much to his skill and labours, I thought it but just to give his memoirs a place here amongst those of the most eminent British seamen; the rather, because he has been hitherto strangely neglected by our biographers as well as by our general historians.\*

\* One might have wondered at his being omitted in the general Dictionary, if there had been an article on *DRAKE*.

## APPENDIX III.

### AN ACCOUNT OF THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA BY THE WELSH, LONG BEFORE THE TIME OF COLUMBUS.

*From Hackluyt's 3rd volume.*

“THE most ancient Discovery of the West Indies by Madoc, the sonne of Owen Guyneth, Prince of North Wales, in the year 1170: taken out of the History of Wales, lately published by M. David Powel, Doctor of Divinity.

“After the death of Owen Guyneth, his sonnes fell at debate who should inherit after him: for the oldest sonne borne in matrimony, Edward, or Jorweth Drwydion, was counted unmeet to governe, because of the maine vpon his face; and Howell, that tooke vpon him all the rule, was a base sonne, begotten vpon an Irish woman. Therefore David gathered all the power he could, and came against Howell, and fighting with him, slew him; and afterwards injoyed quietly the whole land of North Wales, vntil his brother Jorweth's sonne came to age. Madoc, another of Owen Guyneth his sonnes left the land in contention betwixt his brethren, and prepared certaine ships, with men and munitions, and sought adventures by seas, sailing west, and leauing the coast of Ireland so farre north, that he came vnto a land vnknown, where he saw many strange things.

“This land must needs be some part of the country of which the Spaniards affirme themselues to be the

first finders since Hanno's time. Whereupon it is manifest that that countrey was by Britaine discovered, long before Columbus led any Spaniards thither.

"Of the voyage and returne of this Madoc there be many fables fained, as the common people do vse in distance of place and length of time rather to augment than to diminish: but sure it is there he was; and after he returned home, and declared the pleasant and fruitfull countreys that he had seene without inhabitants, and vpon the contrary part, for what barren and wild ground his brethren and nephews did murder one another, he prepared a number of ships, and got with him such men and women as were desirous to liue in quietnesse, and taking leaue of his friends, tooke his journey thitherward againe. Therefore it is to be supposed that he and his people inhabited part of those countreys; for it appeareth by Francis Lopez de Gomara, that in Acuramil and other places the people honoured the cross. Whereby it may be gathered that Christians had been there before the coming of the Spaniards. But because this people were not many, they followed the maners of the land which they came vnto, and vsed the language they found there.

"This Madoc arriuing in that western country, vnto the which he came in the yeare 1170, left most of his people there, and returning backe for more of his owne nation, acquaintance, and friends, to inhabit that faire and large countrey, went thither againe with ten sailes, as I find related by Gutyn Owen. I am of opinion that the land whereunto he came was some part of the West Indies.

"Carmina Meredith filij Rhesi (mentioned) facientia de Madoco filio Oweni Guynedd, et de sua nauigatione in terras igcognitas. Vixit, his Meredith circater annum Domini 1477.

“These verses I receaved of my learned friend,  
M. William Camden :—

“Madoc wyf, mwyedie wedd,  
Tawn genau, Owyn Guynedd :  
Ni fynnum dir, fy enaidocedd  
Na da mawr, ond y morvedd.

*The same in English.*

“Madoc I am, the sonne of Owen Guynedd,  
With stature large and comely grace adorned ;  
No lands at home, nor store of wealth me please,  
My mind was whole to search the ocean seas.”

## APPENDIX IV.

### FORM OF LAND GRANT.

*Newfoundland.*

*No.*

VICTORIA by the Grace of GOD of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland Queen, Defender of the Faith.

*To all to whom these Presents shall come Greeting.*

Know ye that We of our special grace, certain knowledge, and mere motion, have given and granted, and by these Presents do, for Us, our heirs and successors, give and grant unto .....  
.....  
heirs and assigns, all that piece and parcel of Land situate and being .....  
.....  
and being of the dimensions specified in the diagram delineated on the other side hereof, and containing ..  
.....  
with the appurtenances, except and reserved nevertheless out of this present Grant to Us, our heirs and successors, all GOLD and SILVER, and all COALS and other MINES and MINERALS in or under the said piece or parcel of Land.

TO HAVE AND TO HOLD (except as before excepted) under the said ..... heirs and assigns for ever ..... the said ..... paying unto Us, as the price and consideration of the said Land, the sum of ..... Sterling Money, at the time of the ensealing and delivery hereof.

PROVIDED always, and this present Grant is upon condition that the same Grant be registered in the Office of Registry of our .....

Court of NEWFOUNDLAND within Six months next after the day of the date hereof, or otherwise that the same shall be void and of none effect. PROVIDED also, and this present Grant is upon further condition that the said Lands shall be holden upon, under and subject to such regulations as are now in force, or which may at any time hereafter be made by Law for the improvement and cultivation of Lands within our said Island, and subject to all such regulations as are now in force, or which may at any time hereafter be made by Law for making Roads, Sewers, Drains, Canals, Bridges, or other Public Works or Improvements within our said Island, or any part thereof, and for subjecting any Lands therein situate, or the owners or occupiers of such Lands, to rates and assessments, or other duties or services for the purposes aforesaid, or for any of them. And that the said . . . . .

. . . . .  
heirs and assigns shall at all times peaceably quit and deliver up possession to Us, our heirs and successors, of all such parts of the Lands aforesaid as may be required for the purposes aforesaid, or any of them, upon receiving such compensation (if any) as by any Law now in force or hereafter to be made in that respect may be provided.

Given under the Great Seal of our ISLAND OF NEW-  
FOUNDLAND, at St. John's, this . . . . . day of  
. . . . . in the Year of our LORD One  
Thousand Eight Hundred and Forty . . . and in  
the . . . . . Year of our Reign.

Witness our trusty and well-beloved . . . . .  
. . . . . our Go-  
vernor and Commmander-in-Chief in and over  
our said Island and its Dependencies, &c.

By His Excellency's Command,

Received the day and year above-written, from the  
 within-named Grantee, the Sum of . . . . .  
 . . . . . amount of the Consideration  
 Money of the Land herein granted.

£

*Secretary.*

# FEES.

Great Seal . . . .	<i>Stg.</i>
Secretary . . . .	
Surveyor . . . .	
Chainman . . . .	

## APPENDIX V.

1st. THE Diocese of Newfoundland is divided as follows:—

Rural Deanery of Avalon, } Newfoundland.  
 " " Trinity, }  
 " " the Bermudas.

2nd. The number of the Clergy in the Diocese is thirty-four, of whom twenty-five are stationed in Newfoundland, and nine in Bermuda.

*Missions, and Designations of the Clergy in Newfoundland.*

## RURAL DEANERY OF AVALON.

**Rev. T. F. H. Bridge, M.A.,** Vicar-General and Commissary,  
Rural Dean of Avalon, Examining Chaplain, Rector  
of St. John's, and Superintendent of Schools.

— C. Blackman, Minister of St. Thomas's, in St. John's, Principal of Theological Institution, Garrison Chaplain, and a Chaplain to the Lord Bishop.

— W. H. Grant, Missionary serving the Out-harbours around St. John's.

— G. A. Addison, B.A., Missionary at Harbour Grace, and a Chaplain to the Lord Bishop.

— H.J. Fitzgerald, M.A., Missionary at Carbonier.

— J. Kingwill, - - - - - Bishop's & Island Coves.

— C. I. Howell, - - - - - Bay Roberts.

— I. Vicars, - - - - - Port-de-Grave.

— H. H. Hamilton, B.A. - - - - Bay-de-Verd.

— J. M. Martine - - - - - { Belle Isle, & South shore  
of Conception Bay.

— W. Bowman - - - - - Ferryland.

— G. B. Cowan - - - - - Burin.

— W. Jeynes - - - - - Isle of Valen.

— T. Boone - - - - - Fortune Bay.

— W. Meck - - - - - St. George's Bay.

## RURAL DEANERY OF TRINITY.

Rev. J. Burt, M.A., Rural Dean of Trinity, Missionary, and a Chaplain to the Lord Bishop.

- D. Martin, Missionary, Salmon Cove, English Harbour, and adjacent settlements.
- H. Lind, Heart's Content.
- T. M. Wood, Bonavista.
- W. Netten, Catalina.
- B. Smith, King's Cove.
- J. Gilchrist, B.A., Greenspond.
- J. Chapman, Twillingate.
- J. E. Harvey, Fogo.
- W. J. Hoyles, Cape Shore.

3rd. The Missions, their localities and schools; the schools being chiefly in connexion with the Newfoundland and British North American School Society, of which the Lord Bishop is Visitor and a Vice-President.

St. John's :	Central Union School, Daily	{ St. John's : 4 Sunday - schools, 3 be- longing to St. John's church, & 1 to St. Tho- mas's.
Southside of the } Harbour,	Branch School, -	
Quidi Vidi - - - ditto - -	D. - -	
Torbay - - - - - ditto - -	D. & S.	} Out-harbours of St. John's.
Pouch Cove - - - ditto - -	S.	
Portugal Cove - - ditto - -	S.	
Petty Harbour, Principal School	- D. & S.	
Harbour Grace	Principal School, D. & S.	}
Bishop's Cove }	Branch School - D. & S.	
Island Cove }		
Carbonier - - - - - ditto - -	S.	} Conception Bay.
Bay Roberts	Principal - - - D. & S.	
Coley's Point	Branch - - - D. & S.	
Spaniard's Bay	Principal - - - D. & S.	
Poit de Grave - - - ditto - -	- D. & S.	
Salmon Cove	Branch - - - D. & S.	
Bareneeds - - - ditto - -	- D. & S.	
Brigus	Principal - - - D.	
Burnthead	Branch - - - S.	

Bay de Verd	Branch School	- D. & S.	Conception Bay.
Gratis Cove - - -	ditto - - -	D. & S.	Trinity Bay.
Ferryland - - -	ditto - - -	S.	} Southward of St. John's.
Kirby's Cove	Principal - - -		
Rock Harbour	Branch - - -	D. & S.	} Placentia Bay.
Harbour Beaufet - -	ditto - - -	D. & S.	
Isle of Valen - - -	ditto - - -	S.	
Harbour Britain - -	ditto - - -	S.	Fortune Bay.
St. George's Bay	Principal - -	D. & S.	St. George's Bay.

## RURAL DEANERY OF TRINITY.

Trinity :	Principal School,	D. & S.	
English Harbour	Branch - - -	D. & S.	} Trinity Bay.
Salmon Cove - -	ditto - - -	D. & S.	
Cuckold's Cove -	ditto - - -	D. & S.	
Old and New Bonaventura	- - -	D. & S.	
Ship Cove - - -	ditto - - -	D.	
Heart's Content - -	- - -	S.	
Scilly Cove - - -	- - -	S.	
New Perlican - - -	- - -	S.	
Catalina	Branch - - -	D. & S.	} Bonavista Bay.
Bird Island Cove -	ditto - - -	S.	
Bonavista	Principal - -	D. & S.	
King's Cove	Branch - - -	D. & S.	
Kiels - - - - -	ditto - - -	D. & S.	
Salvage - - - - -	ditto - - -	D. & S.	} Bonavista Bay.
Greenspond	Principal - -	D. & S.	
Pinchard's Island,	Branch - - -	D. & S.	
Fool's Island - -	ditto - - -	D. & S.	
Twillingate	Principal - -	D. & S.	
South side of	} Branch - - -	D. & S.	
the Harbour }			
Morton's Harbour	ditto - - -	S.	
Change Islands	Two Schools -	S.	} Fogo.
Bird Island }	- - - - -	S.	
Joe Bat's Arm }	- - - - -	S.	
Exploit's Burnt Island	- - - - -	S.	Cape Shore.

## 4th. Church Members.

St John's - - - - -	2523	Trinity - - - - -	1610
Out-Harbour - - - - -	1104	English Harbour, &c. - -	438
Harbour Grace - - - - -	1700	Catalina - - - - -	540
Carbonier - - - - -	810	Heart's Content - - - - -	1320
Bishop's } Coves - - - - -	744	Bonavista - - - - -	1250
Island }		King's Cove, &c. - - - - -	1050
Spaniard's Bay - - - - -	713	Greenspond - - - - -	1620
Hay Roberts - - - - -	860	Twillingate - - - - -	2354
Port-de-Grave - - - - -	2237	Fogo - - - - -	1259
Bay-de-Verd - - - - -	601	Cape Shore - - - - -	660
Belle-Isle and } - - - - -	940		
South Shore }			12,101
Ferryland - - - - -	330		
Burin - - - - -	855		
Placentia Bay - - - - -	772	Total of Church Members,	
Fortune Bay - - - - -	3121		30,211.
St. George's Bay - - - - -	800		
	<hr/>		
	18,110		

5th. The Rev. Mr. Meek, the missionary stationed in St. George's Bay, has received instructions to open schools among the Miemac Indians.

6th. The first General Episcopal Visitation was held in St. John's, in October last, when the Lord Bishop delivered a Charge to the Clergy.

The several missions have been visited by the Bishop, of whose journeys and labours during the summer of 1841 the following summary was sent by his lordship to the Society for Propagating the Gospel:—

“In the course of my visitation during the present year, I have travelled by land and by water 1118 miles; visited 35 stations; confirmed 1136 persons; consecrated 6 churches; originated or assisted in the building of 21 new churches; ordained 2 priests and 8 deacons; and founded or restored more than 20 day-schools and Sunday-schools.

7th, By the erection of Newfoundland into an independent diocese, there is no doubt that an immense impetus has been given to church principles, feelings, and interests; but too little time has yet elapsed to warrant any positive assertion of increase in the number of church members.

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### BERMUDAS.

#### GENERAL ABSTRACT.

Church of England Members	-	-	-	-	-	9000
Churches and Chapel School-houses	-	-	-	-	-	18
Clergymen*	-	-	-	-	-	9
Licensed Teachers	-	-	-	-	-	19
Church Pupils	-	-	-	-	-	830
Church-room	-	-	-	-	-	6230

#### TOTALS IN THE DIOCESE.

Church Members	-	-	-	-	-	9,211
Churches and Chapels	-	-	-	-	-	75
Clergymen	-	-	-	-	-	34
Licensed Teachers	-	-	-	-	-	65
Church Pupils	-	-	-	-	-	4035
Church-room	-	-	-	-	-	19,210

### AUBREY NEWFOUNDLAND.

*St. John's, Newfoundland,*  
19th February, 1842.

\* The parochial clergy of the Bermudas are provided for by the Colonial Legislature.

## APPENDIX VI.

## THE LAST CENSUS OF NEWFOUNDLAND, IN 1836.

DI-STRIC-TS.	Number of Dwelling-houses.	FAMILY.							Number of Servants.		Total Population.	Number of Fishing Boats.		
		Males.			Females.									
		Under 14 years.	14 to 60 years.	Upwards of 60.	Under 14 years.	14 to 60 years.	Upwards of 60	Males.	Females.					
St. John's .....	2781	3718	4984	166	3611	4123	201	1371	752	18926	700	43	13	
Conception Bay .....	3521	4971	5289	202	4452	4842	261	2380	818	23215	1157	46	109	
Trinity Bay .....	959	1546	1565	108	1372	1320	110	532	250	6803	798	168	11	
Bonavista Bay .....	801	1182	1149	98	1059	1010	71	469	145	5183	181	197	51	
Fogo & Twillingate ...	703	1124	1059	87	1101	872	59	468	116	4886	737	36	6	
Ferryland .....	679	882	1223	77	753	878	53	1897	92	5860	370	139	77	
Placentia & St. Mary's	712	1024	853	68	989	925	49	699	94	4701	297	128	90	
Burin .....	461	639	664	35	644	605	32	437	84	3140	169	55	138	
Fortune Bay .....	454	680	600	69	623	604	28	508	17	3129	632	21	19	
Total .....	11071	15766	17386	910	14609	15197	864	8761	2368	75842	5141	833	514	

## CENSUS OF NEWFOUNDLAND—(continued.)

Districts.	Number of Acres under Cultivation.	Bushels of Potatoes Yearly.	Bushels of Oats or other Grain.	Tons of Hay.	Number of Horses.	Neat Cattle.	Hogs.	Sheep.	Schools.	Male Pupils.	Female Pupils.	Protestant Episcopalians.	Protestant Dissenters.	Roman Catholics.
St John's .....	4290	148,425	5602	3808	528,1307	175	579	37	1041	1379	3813	1057	14,056	
Conception Bay .....	2873	746,869	4184	940	638,1034	1632	1187	22	621	492	6819	6338	10,063	
Trinity Bay .....	3083	48,317	4	167½	51	692	205	74	2	158	127	4098	1639	1,006
Bonaville Bay .....	356	62,287	56	184	57	377	693	60	6	128	136	3473	461	1,249
Fogo and Twillingate ..	—	20,310	—	—	—	304	106	23	1	48	36	4022	45	819
Ferryland .....	1043½	55,983	101	487½	112	402	103	172	6	133	105	313	—	4,798
Placentia and St. Mary's	1356½	67,585	363	866½	108	1225	310	584	4	90	90	710	6	3,985
Burin .....	623	30,357	—	338	54	628	22	168	1	8	12	671	1095	1,374
Fortune Bay .....	271½	8,304	—	184	3	167	15	148	—	—	—	2812	—	308
Total .....	—	1,188,437	—	—	—	6136	3261	2995	79	2227	2377	26,740	10,636	37,718

75,094

75,094

There is an error in the census of 1836, in the enumeration of the servants in Ferryland district, which gives a total of 749 minus ; thus the population in the electoral districts, instead of 75,094, should have been, as I have placed it, 75,843 ; and this excluded the settlers on the northern, south-western, and western shores, out of the electoral districts, who may very safely, even in 1836, be taken at 5000 more, making 80,843 ; and if to these be added the permanent French residents, known, in 1836, to have been 12,000, and 200 Micmac Indians, we shall have a total of 93,043 ; so that, in now saying that the population of Newfoundland, in 1842, has reached 100,000, I am probably under the mark considerably, as the south-west shore has been extensively settled lately.

## APPENDIX VII.

### METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS.

#### AURORA BOREALIS.

AT Kingston, in Upper Canada, for many days previously to Tuesday, August 28, 1827, the heavens had exhibited the Aurora very brilliantly, and more frequently than had hitherto been observed. On that night the scene was very grand; I subjoin a description of it from the "Kingston Herald." I did not witness this splendid scene, neither did I observe that of Saturday night, the 8th September, which was nearly equal in magnificence. I saw it, however, now and then on other nights; and on Sunday night, the 9th inst., I observed a most uncommon and interesting spectacle, which did not appear to me to belong to the usual signs of the Aurora. That night, about dark, or eight o'clock, I saw an arch forming in the sky, which, as the obscurity of the night increased, became very luminous. It extended at first from about under Arcturus, or the Lion, to the Pleiades, with but a small convexity or elevation.

Gradually, and exceedingly slow, it rose, or became more convex; and at nine it attained, on its north-western limb, the altitude of the highest part of the body of Ursa Major, while it had increased in thickness very much, and, being complete, formed a broad

and highly magnificent arch of pale white light, which spanned a third part of the horizon.

It was now like a heavenly bow of luminous white vapour, through which the larger stars of the constellations were very visible; nor did its grandeur or its light diminish when the moon, slowly emerging from the extremity of its south-eastern limb, at a quarter before nine, shewed a deep yellow disk through its splendid veil.

At half-past eight, the true Aurora became suddenly apparent: first, in the zenith, a cloud of bright white light, with a singular curved, pear-shaped form, arose, and elongating its lesser extremity, slowly bent to the horizon, and as slowly vanished. Then on the south-east, from the lower boundary of the sky, came a rod of the same white light, which enlarging its dimensions very slowly, pointed to, and at length reached the milky way, at the northern cross, and after shooting through the galaxy with a stately and somewhat stealing pace, slowly vanished.

Even in these appearances there was little or no signs of the Aurora Borealis as it is usually observed in high latitudes. I have seen it in the northern hemisphere sufficiently high to observe the sun at midnight, but I never remember anything like these slow and stately movements, nor anything that could be compared with the stationary arch I have described, which, as the moon rose above it, did not disappear even as late as half-past ten, although the brilliancy of her light had certainly rendered that of the bow very faint.

The thermometer, at noon, in the shade, for the preceding week, varied from seventy to eighty-four of Fahrenheit. There had been very little or no rain for a long period, but the night dews had been very heavy, and there was a sudden and very transient

thunder-storm, which destroyed a barn near this place on the Thursday afternoon.

The greatest extent of the circle I observed was 160 degrees, or more than one-third of the visible horizon. You may conceive the singularity of the scene, when you reflect that the vast expanse of tranquil water of Lake Ontario, the deep gloom of the forest, the town of Kingston, and the immense ships in the dock-yard, were all component parts of it.

Abstracted by such a scene from all the paltry feelings of our nature, which habit and circumstances cause to be generally uppermost, the mind of the contemplative man soars away into the realms of boundless space, forgets for a while the clog that holds it here, and with a full certainty of its own comparative insignificance amid the works of creation, returns humbly to a consciousness of its present state, having added one more to the endless reasons which cause him to adore the inscrutable wisdom of the Almighty Architect of the Universe.

*Account of an Aurora Borealis, with a notice of a  
Solar Phenomenon.*

Having witnessed, from the days of boyhood, the splendid phenomena of the Boreal Aurora in almost all the latitudes under which it is usually seen, as far north as to have observed the sun at midnight, and particularly during a long sojourn in Shetland, where the people imagine, from its extremely swift changes and inexpressible vividness, that they can actually hear its rushings, I have ever been anxious to seize all opportunities of endeavouring to catch its Protean forms, and to describe them, in the hope that by exciting attention to facts concerning this wonder of

northern skies, science might be more attentive to its appearances, and that at length it might become a portion of the duty of meteorologists to detail in their columns all circumstances concerning it which they might observe.

The Aurora, in the high northern latitudes, when at its extreme, is almost dazzling, and the quickness of its motions approaches that of lightning. In other situations, it has also been observed to assume irised colours. But although all these combined are eminently wonderful, and strike the spectator with profound admiration and awe, yet perhaps the regions of Upper Canada bordering on Lake Ontario\* exhibit, though not so splendid and varied a display of this mystery, yet one equally or perhaps more interesting to the philosopher. I have now witnessed the Aurora at Kingston for upwards of four years, and in a former volume of the Transactions, have described a magnificent scene, which occurred there two years ago.

During the winter months, on Lake Ontario, the Aurora may be said to be almost a constant companion of the dark and cheerless nights, and it occasionally presents itself at all other times of the year; nor is it in winter a mere display of a glorious phenomenon, the utility of which has not yet been exemplified by science, for it sheds a continued and pleasing light which resembles that of the crepuscular. This light does not, as in Europe, emanate from the vivid streamers which dance over the starry floor of the heavens, in ever changing and inexplicable mazes, but proceeds from the northern horizon, over which a pale, luminous, low, and depressed arch, embracing

\* Not having observed it elsewhere in Canada, I speak only of locality, as a personal observer.

an extent of from sixty to ninety degrees, is commonly thrown. This arch is generally luminous in its whole body, not on the rim or verge only, which fades away into ethereal space, but from its superior circumference to the chord formed by the horizon itself, and varies in its elevation from ten to fifteen and twenty degrees. Wherever it embraces stars, these luminaries are either veiled or dimly seen, being strongly contrasted on a fine starlight night, with their fellow orbs of the southern heavens, which appear to shine out with double brilliancy.

Within the space comprehended by this arch of light, continual changes are operating: if the Aurora assumes a splendid shape, dark volumes of vapour, not like clouds, but blackening in a moment, rise and fall whenever a ray or an interior arc begins to form; and it is remarkable that this darkness usually accompanies the commencement of every change in the scene, thereby increasing the majesty and beauty as well as the brilliancy of the spectacle.

But it is impossible for any pen adequately to describe a phenomenon which is continually presented in these regions, and it is with diffidence that I continue a task imposed on myself. It will, therefore, be more satisfactory to detail the circumstances attending a very recent repetition of one of the most beautiful of those which have been seen at Kingston this winter, nearly the whole of which I saw, and whatever escaped me was related by a very accurate observer.

On the evening of the 11th of December 1835, the sky, after the sun had sunk, was dark and gloomy, and although there were but few clouds visible, and the stars were rapidly brightening, a change of weather was apparent. Snow had fallen for the first time, on Wednesday the 8th, after a short space of great cold, to the depth of about five inches, and the

thermometer had sunk afterwards to sixteen degrees, at which it stood on Monday, the 13th. On Tuesday, it rose to thirty degrees, and rain in abundance falling, removed the snow entirely. It was exactly midway between the extreme cold and the thaw that the Aurora took place, the thermometer at the time standing at about twenty-six degrees, and the wind a gentle breeze from the north-west. The barometer stood at 29.9, at 9 P.M., at an elevation of forty feet above the lake, which is two hundred and nineteen feet above the sea.\*

Its first appearance, after darkness had completely set in, was by the luminous arch above mentioned assuming its wonted place. From this arch in the north arose almost incessant streamers of bright white light, which shot upwards to the zenith, and streaked the dark sky with their silvery lines.

Once a mass of light suddenly opened in the zenith, and from it darted out innumerable pencils of bright rays, overspreading the dark vault of heaven with their glories, and seeming for a moment to illuminate the sky with a star, which its vast space was scarcely capable of containing.

Again, rods of white light would dart forth from the northern horizon, and one single one in particular spanned the whole arch of heaven, touching the southern horizon over the great lake.

This play of the Aurora continued from seven until near nine, and was most brilliant and magnificent about nine, when it assumed another and not less singular attitude.

The lower arch was usually the boundary of a very dark, black, changing mass; between the lower arch

\* The barometrical observations were made at the hospital, on Point Henry, by a very accurate observer. On the 10th December, it indicated, at 9 A.M., 29.5; at 9 P.M., 29.7; on the 11th, at 9 A.M., 29.8; at 9 P.M., 29.9; on the 12th, at 9 A.M., 30.1; at 9 P.M., 30.1.

and the second, the space was not so dark; and between the second and third, or upper arch, it was still lighter, excepting where the coruscations shot upwards out of the second arch, and there it was very dark. The second arch was incomplete.

The ray shooting up on the right was brilliant in the extreme. Stars were partially visible above the third arch, but the bright ones in Ursa Major, on the left, had lost all their splendour, and the constellation could just be traced. The obscuration of the heavenly bodies reached almost to the zenith above the centre of the arch, and was less over the extremities.

This first appearance lasted long enough to enable me to go into another part of the house, and make a hasty sketch. On my return to the window, it was altering.

The lower arch had somewhat heightened, and become darker, with here and there spots of light in it; whilst, from its circumference shot out brilliant rays and pencils of light. The second arch had altogether disappeared, but the upper one held its wonted place. It must be observed, that the upper arch was always paler, and more indistinct in its outline than the others. Faint stars now appeared through the darkish vapour, between the two bands, or arches of light; and the lower band was indistinct, excepting to the left of its central space, where it was vividly depicted and extremely well defined by a sharp band of bright light, cut off, both above and below, by very black, vapoury masses. This second appearance lasted also long enough to enable me to make a hasty sketch of it.

None of the pencils, or rays, which shot out of either of these changes of the Aurora, were so quick or so intensely vivid in their action or light, as those seen in the more northern regions, nor were they coloured, but they were always accompanied by the

black, vapoury shroud, which hid everything else from view, and added greatly to the lustre of their exodus from the horizon.

Having made the sketch, I again returned to view the Aurora, which had somewhat changed its appearance.

Both arcs, or belts, were now less distinct, the lower one almost obliterated; but still its place was well marked by the arch of vapour below, which was darker than ever. Three large spots of intense light now displayed themselves, one on the horizontal chord, and one on each side of the lower arch; whilst this lower zone shot out innumerable pencils and floods of light from its dark nucleus, the upper zone also darting forth lines of brilliant rays; all these rays, from both bands, moving in a very stately march, or progression from east to west.

Towards the southern and western portions of the heavens all was clear, blue-black starlight, Orion being particularly brilliant; the north was as if overspread with a thin veil, through which the stars were barely visible.

I watched these alterations of the phenomenon until after ten, and the last I observed presented this form; after which the arches became less distinct, and eventually, with the exception of the great arch, passed away.

In this fourth change, the Aurora, it will be observed, resumed its three arches, but they were no longer concentric, the third being broken on the right into a portion of a fourth. Between the second and third, the darkness was the darkness of blackness, whilst the third arch was light itself; but the lower arches were not so bright, and the lower nucleus was only darkish, which was contrary to every state that it had presented, under any former observations, for several years.

The constant arch of the Aurora of the lakes has, I believe, never been noticed in any scientific publication, and is well worthy the attention of the learned. Whether it is created by a peculiar locality of the matter of which the substance of the Aurora is composed, or whether the Aurora itself, as the magnetic influence, has a peculiar pole from whence its effluences emanate, can scarcely be at present determined; but it is, at all events, highly singular, that in a latitude so low as forty-four degrees, the Aurora should assume forms unknown in the higher northern regions, where its powers were hitherto supposed to have developed themselves in the highest possible state.

Not having been very well when this singular scene occurred, I did not take all that notice of it which it deserved. I trust I shall be able, during the winter, to note the atmospheric phenomena which accompany it more particularly, as well as to give a more detailed account.

3rd September, 1839.

At Kingston, Upper Canada, a very singular display:—The portion called Merry Dancers, which are seldom seen in Upper Canada, and which is a swift transition and interminglement of vertical columns of light, was very beautiful and brilliant, but of very short duration, and only occurred once during a splendid exhibition of the Aurora, which was coloured red in its eastern and western portions, also very unusual in that region.

There was also a vast sheet of bright and dazzling white light proceeding from an apex near the zenith, or rather from a point inclined forty-five degrees to the south of the zenith. It had a slow and solemn motion, and exhibited a triangle reaching to the horizon. This was opposite to the constant arch in the north, which remained for a long time, as usual; and the described

motion of the triangular sheet of light was from west to east, although broken afterwards into rays all round the sky very slowly. It was followed by the coronal, or umbrella aurora, from the zenith, covering with its rays the whole visible hemisphere. This was the grandest display of the Aurora I ever saw in Canada, as far as variety of form and motion was concerned.

In the winter of 1837—December, I think—there was a red light diffused over the whole sky after sunset for some hours, which gave the snow the appearance of being rose colour. People fancied at first it arose from some extensive and alarming fire.

#### SOLAR PHENOMENON.

Immediately previous to the alteration of the weather at Kingston, on Lake Ontario, after an unusual duration of severe frost, and about the middle of March, at near four o'clock of the afternoon of Sunday, I observed a singular species of halo, or rainbow.

The day was mild, and there was scarcely any wind, and no rain, but the face of the sky was overclouded, and the sun appeared as it does through a slight fog.

Around the luminary, at a radial distance of perhaps twenty degrees, there was a dark halo of the usual defined character and appearance; and circling this halo, in various places, a rainbow was visible. This rainbow was brightest in the eastern and western parts of the halo, where it assumed that peculiar appearance which seafaring men call weather dogs, and which are of very frequent occurrence in the northern division of the Atlantic ocean.

It was evident from the dull whitish light that was diffused about those portions of the circumference of the halo of which the prismatic colours were not perfectly defined, that in some situations an observer

might witness the singularly interesting spectacle of a circum-solar rainbow in which the prismatic colours formed a complete circle concentric with the sun.

In the course of the winter season, during changes of the weather from frost to a thaw, I have frequently observed a small portion of a vertical arch of the above description, although the sun was hardly visible. Usually these occurrences have taken place when the sun has been at the same elevation as in the instance here described : they have always happened when there was no rain.

I am unable to say whether the appearances might not be created by reflection from the brilliant surface of such a vast body of ice, unencumbered by snow, as has been presented by Lake Ontario during the last winter, as it is difficult to account for the formation of a rainbow of so small a diameter on the usual principles, since the sun at the time was forty degrees above the horizon.

I have used the word rainbow in the above description, although it is not a correct one, as there were no appearances of rain during the presence of the phenomenon, although it is true there was a slight mist, or fog.

Since writing the above, I have seen an almost complete circum-solar rainbow, which appeared at Toronto (U. C.), July 1834, at seven in the morning.

#### SUNSET.

On the 6th September, 1839, or three days after the great aurora, the appearance of the sun was extremely singular at Kingston, in Upper Canada. It resembled that aurora, only the rays were reversed of course. These rays, accurately defined, were divided by sharp blue green bands, perfectly distinct, and the China colour, so frequently seen in Canada, where the light

of the sun mingles at its setting with the clouds or sky, passing from an indescribable gradation of reds through green to that unpaintable blue-white, was particularly fine.

The sunsets of Upper Canada and Newfoundland both exhibit this peculiar soft white china blue, and those countries afford splendid sunsets at all times of the year when the sky is not misty.

I cannot close these accounts without referring to some observations in my work on "Canada in 1841," respecting the phosphorescence of the sea, there described as having been seen in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. I have since thought much on the subject, have seen it frequently, and am of opinion that, like the aurora, it is one of the grand displays of electromagnetic powers. I find that in the *Edinburgh Philosophical Journal* for 1819, there is an ingenious paper addressed by Dr. Robertson to Dr. Brewster, on the luminous appearance of the Mediterranean, with reference also to the *Fata Morgana*.

Now I could never find any insects, or the reliquia of fishes, after careful search in the luminous water of the St. Lawrence, and am much inclined to credit the theory there broached, that a change of the weather causes these appearances; that the luminosity is seldom observed in winter, compared with its frequency in summer and in autumn; that it rarely occurs with a fresh breeze from the northward, or when the temperature of the air is low, nor in any great degree, excepting in calms, when the temperature of the air is high, and the wind about to change to a southerly point, and that it is most brilliant just before rain; that it is somehow occasioned by co-operation by the rapid evolution of the electric fluid in that process, although it is undoubtedly sometimes the effect of animals possessing phosphoric, or some other luminous matter. Dr. Robertson says, that an ingenious Greek

physician told him that he always found it very difficult to accumulate the electric fluid in his apparatus on such occasions, and he cites Golbery as inclining to his opinion, in the second volume of his *Voyage to the Coast of Africa*.

## APPENDIX VIII.

### LIST OF WORKS ALREADY PUBLISHED ON NEWFOUNDLAND.

THE best authorities on Newfoundland are, in the order of time,—

1497. (12 Hen. VII.) In Purchas' Pilgrim, folio, vol. iii., page 807, an Account of the Discovery of Newfoundland, by John Cabot, a Venetian, and Sebastian, his Son, on the 24th of June, 1497, in English ships, with a Commission of Hen. VII., with the Account given by Sebastian Cabot of coming home along the coasts of America to Florida.
1498. (13 Hen. VII.) In Purchas' Pilgrim, folio, vol. ii., page 809, and vol. iii., page 461, and in Hackluyt's Voyages, folio, page 512; a Discourse of Sebastian Cabot, touching his Discovery of part of the West India, out of England, Anno 1497, at the charge of King Henry VII., used to Galeacius Butrigarius, the Pope's legate in Spain, and reported by the said legate in this sort, with several other Testimonies concerning the said Discovery.
1499. (14 Hen. VII.) In Hackluyt's Voyages, folio, page 515, a Note of Sebastian Cabot's first Discovery of part of the Indies, taken out of the latter part of Robert Fabian's Chronicle; with an account of the three savages brought home by him, and presented unto the king in the fourteenth

year of his reign, and again in Hackluyt, p. 511, an Extract taken out of the Mapp of Sebastian Cabot, cut by Clement Adams, concerning his Discovery of the West Indies, which was to be seen in her Majesty Queen Elizabeth's private gallery at Westminster, and in many other ancient merchants' houses.

1527. (18 Hen. VIII.) In Hackluyt, p. 517, an account of the voyage of two ships, whereof the one was called the *Dominus Vobiscum*, set out on the 20th day of May, in the year of our Lord 1527, for the Discovery of the North parts of Newfoundland and Cape Britton.

And in Purchas, vol. iii. p. 809, a Letter to King Henry, in the Haven of St. John, in Newfoundland, by John Rut, master of a ship sent thither and employed in fishing, 3rd August, 1527.

1536. (27 Hen. VIII.) Hackluyt, p. 517. The Voyage of Master Hore and divers other gentlemen to Newfoundland and Cape Breton in the year 1536, and in the twenty-eighth year of King Henry the Eighth.

1548. (2 Edward VI.) Hackluyt, p. 521. An Act against the Exaction of Money, or any other thing, by any officer, for Licence to Traffique in Ireland or Newfoundland, made in an. 2 Edwardi Sexti, and also,

Hackluyt, p. 519. A Copie of the Letters Pat. of King Edward VI. to Sebastian Cabota, constituting him Grand Pilot of England, and graunting him an Annuitie or yeerly Revenue of one hundred threescore and six pounds, thirteen shillings and four-pence. Witness, the King at Westminster, 6 Januar., second yeere of our Reign, 1548.

1553. (7 Edward II.) In Hackluyt, fol. 1589, p. 1259.

Ordinances, Instructions, and Advertizements of and for the Direction of the intended Voyage for Carthave, compiled, made, and delivered by the Right Worshipful M. Sebastian Cabota, Esquire, Governor of the Mystery and Company of the Merchant's Adventurers for the Discovery of Regions, Dominions, Islands, and Places unknown, the 9th of May, in the year of our Lord 1553, 7 Edward VI.

Also, p. 263, *Exemplar Epistolæ seu Litterarum Missivarum quas illustrissimus Princeps Edwardus ejus nominis sextus, etc., Arisit ad Principes Septentrionalem ac Orientalem mundi plagam inhabitantes juxta mare glaciale, necnon Indiam Orientalem, Anno Domini 1553, regni sui septimo et ultimo.*

1578. (19 Elizabeth.) In Hackluyt, p. 674. A Letter written to Mr. Richard Hackluyt, of the Middle Temple, conteining a Report of the true State and Commodities of Newfoundland, by M. Anthonie Parkhurst, gentleman, 1578 :

And at p. 679: The Letters Patent graunted by Her Majestie to Sir Humfrey Gilbert, of Compton, in the countie of Devon, Knight, for the inhabiting and planting of our people in America. Witness Ourself at Westminster, the xi. day of June, the 20th yeere of our Reigne.

1583. (25 Elizabeth.) In Hackluyt, p. 718. A True Report of the late Discoveries and Possession taken in the right of the Crowne of England of the New-found-land, by that valiant and worthy gentleman, Sir Humfrey Gilbert, Knight, wherein is also briefly set downe her Highness a lawful title thereunto, and the great and manifold commodities, &c., written by Sir George Peckham, Knight, the chief adventurer and furtherer of the said voyage to Newfoundland ;

And also at p. 698, of folio of 1589: A copie of the Letters in Latin and English to the worshipfull Master Richard Hackluyt, at Oxford, in Christ Church, Master of Arts, dated in Newfoundland, at St. John's Port, the sixt of August 1583, giving an account of that island.

1609. (7 James I.) In Purchas, vol. iii., p. 581. The third voyage of Master Henrie Hudson towards Nova Zembla, and at his return, his passing from Farre Islands to Newfoundland, and along to fourty-four degrees ten minutes; and thence to Cape Cod, and so to 33 degrees, &c. in 1609. Written by Robert Ives, of Limehouse.

1610. (8 James I.) In Purchas. The Beginning of the Patent for Newfoundland, and the plantation there, made by the English, 1610; delivered in a Letter dated thence from M. Guy to M. Slany: also of the weather the three first winters, and of Captain Western, with other remarkable occurrences.

1622. (20 James I.) A DISCOURSE AND DISCOVERY OF NEVV-FOVND-LAND, with many reasons to proue how worthy and beneficiall a Plantation may there be made after a far better manner than now it is. Together with the Laying Open of Certaine Enormities and Abuses Committed by some that Trade to that Countrey, and the meanes laid downe for Reformation thereof. Written by Captaine Richard Whitbourne, of Exmouth, in the County of Deuon, and published by Authority, as also, an Inuitation: and likewise Certaine Letters sent from that Countrey; which are printed in the latter part of this Booke. Imprinted at London, by Felix Kingston. 1622. Small 4to. (Scarce and very curious.) p. 107, &c.

Also, in 1622, Order of the King in Council at Theobalds, the 12th of April, 1622; with the

Copy of a Reference from the King's Most Excellent Majestie, for Recommending Captain Whitbourne's Discourse concerning Newfoundland, so as the same may be distributed to the several Parishes of this Kingdom, for the encouragement of Adventurers unto the Plantation there. As also a Letter from the Right Honourable the Lords of the Council, to the Most Reverend Fathers the Lords Archbishops of Canterbury and Yorke. Dat. Whitehall, the last day of June, 1621; with a List of the Names of some who have undertaken to helpe and advance his Majestic's Plantation in the New-found-land. 4to. 1622;

And in Purchas, vol. iv. p. 1189, the Names of Divers Honourable Persons and others, who have undertaken to helpe advance his Majestic's Plantation in the New-found-land; with Extracts of certain Letters written from the Governor, Captain Edward Winne, to Sir George Calvert, his Majestic's Secretary of State, and others, in this year, 1622.

1626. (2 Charles I.) The Fourth Edition of Purchas; his Pilgrimage, in five vols. Folio.

1671. (25 Charles II.) An Act for the Encouragement of the Greenland and Eastland Trades, and for the better securing the Plantation Trade of Newfoundland, and other his Majestic's Colonies and Plantations. Anno xxv. Car. 2, cap. vii.

1687. (3 James II.) The Present State of His Majesty's Isles and Territories in America—viz., Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Nevis, Antego, St. Vincent, Dominico, New Jersey, Pensilvania, Monserrat, Anguilla, Bermudas, Carolina, Virginia, New England, Tobago, Newfoundland, Maryland, New York; with New Maps of every place, which will serve as a Constant Diary or Calendar for the use of the English In-

habitants in those Islands, from the year 1686 to 1700, &c. Licensed July 20, 1686. London. Printed for Dorman Newman. 1687. 8vo. p. 212. To which are added Astronomical Tables.

1694. (6 William and Mary.) A Letter from the Baron Lahontan, dated at Viana, in Portugal, January 31, 1694, containing an Account of the Writer's Departure from France for Placentia, in Newfoundland. A Fleet of Thirty English Ships came to seize upon that place, but is disappointed, and sheers off. The reasons why the English have Bad Success in all their Enterprizes beyond Sea. The Writer's Adventure with the Governor of Placentia, &c. In New Voyages to North America, by the Baron Lahontan, Lord Lieutenant of the French Colony at Placentia, in Newfoundland. London. 2 vols. 8vo. 1703.
1699. (11 William III.) The Humble Address of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal to His Majesty, in relation to the Petition of Charles Desborow, late Captain of His Majesty's Ship Mary Gally, employed in the Expedition to Newfoundland, in the year 1697, under the Command of Captain John Norris; and His Majesty's Most Gracious Answer thereto. Printed for Charles Desborow. 1699. 4to. p. 8. And an Act to Encourage the Trade to Newfoundland, as beneficial to this kingdom, in its Trade and Navigation. Anno x. & xi. Guil. III. cap. xxv.
1708. (7 Anne.) The British Empire in America; contains the History of the Discovery, Settlement, Progress, and Present State of all the British Colonies on the Continent and Islands of America. In two vols.; being an Account of the Country, Soil, Climate, Product, and Trade of them—viz., vol. i. Newfoundland, &c., with Curious Maps of the Several Places, done from the Newest Surveys.

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